The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 10, 1902.

The Week.

President-elect Palma explicitly declared, in his address to the Chamber of Commerce, on Thursday, that the tariff measure for Cuba proposed by the Ways and Means Committee "will in no way afford any relief to the present distress of the Cuban producers." This is in line with his article in last week's *Independent*, in which he asserts that, with anything less than 33 per cent. reduction on Cuban sugar, "the attempt, for us, is hopeless." With that our own Military Governor, Gen. Wood, agrees. He publicly stated, before leaving Washington the other day, that the 20 per cent. reduction would not do. Yet no larger concession will a Republican House grant, and then only after endless wrangles and delays, and with most onerous conditions attached. Already, too, the Senate is preparing to loiter about the business in its most approved fashion. Indeed, Senator Burrows is now urging the President to have the whole thing put over till next December, with a commission of Congress to be appointed to ascertain "the facts." But it is not facts that Congress lacks. Leadership and consistency are what it wants, with the courage to legislate for a dependent people, instead of for Oxnard. Meanwhile, the country has grown exceedingly weary, not of the well doing of Congress, but of its doing nothing at all; and in place of our old fine glow in behalf of the wronged Cubans, we hear it muttered that they always were a nuisance anyhow, and are now a set of unblushing beggars. It is American protectionists who say this now. It used to be the Spanish protectionists who said it. But we heroically freed Cuba from *their* oppression.

We congratulate the infant and struggling Beet-Sugar Trust on its flattering financial statement covering the past year's operations. An increase in gross profits of $185,853 over the previous year, on a product more than doubled; the most rosy estimates for "the campaign of 1902," and not a word about any danger of competition by Cuban sugar, or fear of what Congress may do—can the Oxnard who lays all this good news before the world be the same friend of the beet who is striving at Washington to show that he will be a ruined man if Cuban reciprocity prevails? It must have been some nefarious use of a proxy that attached his name to this annual report. As it stands, it is a document as awkward to the rescuers of the imperilled beet as was that famous Oxnard-Cutting circular maintaining that beet sugar could be profitably manufactured in this country, even if Cuban sugar were to come in absolutely free.

The Oleomargarine Bill has passed the Senate by a vote of 39 to 31. It is an application of the principles of "protection" to our internal trade, and it is capable of indefinite extension. The pretence originally set up against oleomargarine that it was injurious to health has been abandoned, but not without a struggle. The creameries and the manufacturers of "process butter" clung to the theory that oleomargarine was a deleterious compound until they were thrown out of court by their own witnesses, the experts of the Department of Agriculture. The regulations and the Government inspection which have been enforced for several years past have had consequences the very opposite of what were intended by the promoters. They have improved the quality of oleomargarine, and they have given it reputation and popularity which it would not have gained so soon or so easily in any other way. This warfare against it has advertised oleomargarine throughout the world as a wholesome and cheap article of diet to millions of people who would never have thought of eating it if its merits had not been thrust before their eyes and dinned in their ears through successive sessions of Congress. According to the testimony of the anti-oleomargarine Senators, this "fraudulent butter" has become so popular that its sale is increasing, in spite of the most stringent laws of the several States. Hence the necessity of new and severer laws on the part of the Federal Government.

The law provides that any person selling oleomargarine and furnishing it for the use of others, except his own family, who shall mix with it any artificial coloration that causes it to look like butter, shall be held to be a manufacturer of it, and shall be subject to the tax provided by existing law; that upon oleomargarine colored so as to resemble butter a tax of 10 cents a pound shall be levied, but upon oleomargarine not colored the tax shall be one-fourth of one cent per pound; that upon adulterated butter a tax of 10 cents a pound shall be levied; and that upon all process or renovated butter the tax shall be one-fourth of one cent per pound. The only article in the list that is really injurious to health is "process butter," which is a mixture of old and new butter, sweet and rancid butter, chemicals, salt, and coloring matter, produced largely in various parts of the country. This stuff is taxed only one-fourth of a cent per pound, and there is no prohibition of artificial coloring matter. Any amount of deception may be employed to work this off upon the public, but if any person colors oleomargarine which is perfectly fresh and sweet he must pay a tax of 10 cents per pound.

The American sailor suddenly took a hand in the discussion of the Chinese Exclusion Bill in the House on Monday. An amendment was offered to exclude Chinese sailors entering American ports on American ships. This seems logical. If Chinese competition is too strong ashore, it must also be on shipboard. Moreover, here was a direct way to aid the American sailor, for whom the shipping interests have such a tender concern—when they are asking for a subsidy. Curiously enough, however, they strenuously objected to this form of Chinese exclusion, saying that it would compel them to transfer their vessels to the British flag. The amendment was adopted by the House, nevertheless; but it will probably be squeezed out before the bill finally gets through Congress. Yet it has served to display, in a strong light, the sincerity of the subsidy-seekers in their assertion that their hearts bleed when they think of the American sailor, and that the high wages they desire to pay him explain their raid on the Treasury.

The Chicago *Tribune* animadverts on a clause in the Ship-Subsidy Bill which was offered as an amendment by Senator Hanna just before the passage of the measure in the Senate. It is at the end of section 17, the last one in the bill, and in these words:

> "Nothing contained in this act, or in any other act of Congress, shall be construed to prevent any citizen or corporation of the United States or of any State from contracting for, acquiring, holding, or operating any interest in one or more steamship lines engaged in foreign commerce; but no foreign-built ship of any such line shall hereafter be admitted to American registry."

This amendment was adopted without debate. The Chicago *Tribune* thinks that it is intended to open the way to the purchase and control of foreign steamship lines by American railway companies, and to exempt them from the provisions of the Sherman Anti-Trust Law. This would seem to be the effect of the words employed, since the exemption is made applicable to former acts of Congress, as well as to this particular one. The Chicago *Tribune* rightly calls it a dangerous and audacious proposition.

The *Tribune*, by the way, has been a consistent and untiring opponent of the bill from the beginning, and has rendered conspicuous service to sound principles

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of government by repeated exposure of its swindling features. Its Washington correspondent has made an informal poll of the House, and finds that if the bill were brought to a vote at the present session, it would be defeated, and that in the short session beginning next December it will meet the cold shoulder of Speaker Henderson and other House leaders, who will find means to stave it off altogether. The Washington bureau of the New York *Herald* reaches the same conclusion, after a personal canvass of the House. It quotes the opinions of Hepburn and Cousins of Iowa, Corliss and Smith of Michigan, Crumpacker and Robertson of Indiana, Mann of Illinois, Loud of California, and Cushman of Washington, as strongly opposed to it, either now or at any other session. Congressman Bartlett of Georgia is quoted as saying that "Speaker Henderson will not allow it to come to a vote," but, of course, that must be a mere guess. Gen. Grosvenor, the champion of the bill in the House, made the remark, according to the *Herald's* correspondent, that "all he hoped for this session was a report from the Committee," but it seems doubtful whether even this can be obtained.

Signs of doubt and hints of heresy, on the subject of protection, have long been multiplying among its supposed beneficiaries, but few declarations in favor of a modified confession of protectionist faith have been more frank and decided than those lately made public in a number of letters from manufacturers to the editor of the *American Machinist*. They embody the views of some fifty-eight leading makers of machine tools, and may be taken as the fruit of the business experience of men employing more than 21,000 artisans, and with more than $35,000,000 of invested capital. Of the fifty-eight who were willing that their views should be put into print, no less than thirty-eight endorsed, without qualification, the opinion as to the necessity of reciprocity treaties laid down by the late President McKinley in his last speech at Buffalo; seven approved it with some qualifications, and none disagreed. Thirty-four openly acknowledged that on their own products they need no protective tariff, while only two asserted that there is still such a need. On the question whether to modify or do away with the present tariff on machine tools, there were forty-two for and but three against a change. Thirty-eight expressed the belief that the tariff now in force restricts our foreign trade in machinery.

Hardly less revolutionary are the reasons assigned by the manufacturers for their present belief. Conditions, they make bold to pretend, have changed. "We have largely outgrown the need" of protection, says one; "it is already beginning to hamper and injure our industries by retarding the growth of our foreign trade." Another adds, "We are out of our infancy as a manufacturing country, and have very few industries that cannot stand alone. What we want is markets, not protection." Protection is but "a course of training for that industrial and financial battle for the world's supremacy which it is our determination to win." Says one letter: "The alarm about the tariff is an inheritance which became rooted at a time when conditions were almost directly the reverse of what they are to-day." Labor is no gainer from protection, believes a Philadelphia manufacturer of gear-wheels. "Tariff can protect only investors of capital. Labor cannot profit by it, for it tends to increase wages only in the measure in which it tends to increase prices." So the comments run. Gentle or harsh, the criticisms passed on existing laws are manifestly the result of no idle web-spinning, but rather the product of long and often costly experience in broad commercial fields. Yet to champions of the so-called American system, this practical repudiation must seem both unkind and ungrateful.

Senator Hansbrough on Monday week introduced an amendment to the Army Appropriation Bill which provides one million dollars for the construction of post exchanges—that is, recreation buildings for army posts. In a letter to the *Evening Post* which has been widely copied, Capt. Edward C. Brooks of the Eleventh Cavalry urged, some months ago, that just this action should be taken by Congress as a means of keeping the soldiers contented, without the sale of intoxicating liquors by the Government. Hitherto one of the strongest arguments for the canteen has been that out of its profits billiard tables, reading-matter, gymnasium outfits, etc., could be purchased for the use of the enlisted men. At the same time the desire to make a good showing along these lines has led many a canteen officer to allow indiscriminate and excessive drinking, to the detriment of the morals of the troops. Gen. A. S. Daggett is another officer who has been urging that the Government should supply a post club out of its own means in the interest of temperance and morality. Indeed, Senator Hansbrough's proposal will have the endorsement of men of both schools in the army—of those who favor the sale of beer, and of those who are opposed to it on principle and in practice. It is an interesting fact that some of the officers who have recently returned from the Philippines are not nearly as enthusiastic about the canteen as they were.

In the matter of army promotions to generalcies, President Roosevelt has had to choose between two classes of candidates—those who are comparatively young and still vigorous, and those who are near retirement and worn out by forty years of service. It has been his desire, where possible, to put young and vigorous officers in responsible positions—men who could be counted on for at least ten years of energetic service, and who were in hearty sympathy with the progressive ideas which have come to prevail in the War Department under Secretary Root's régime. On the other hand, Mr. Roosevelt has recognized the desirability of rewarding men even at the close of long and faithful careers, and this feeling dictated the promotions last week of Brig-Gen. Hughes and Cols. De Russy, Burt, and Sheridan. Gen. Hughes's service in the southern Philippine Islands is still fresh in mind. In recognition of this and his approaching retirement for age, he was jumped over five other generals. Cols. De Russy and Burt were the senior colonels of infantry, and Col. Sheridan the ranking officer in the Adjutant-General's Department, next to Gen. Corbin. It is expected that all of the new brigadier-generals will shortly retire at their own request, thus leaving the President free either to promote and retire other old officers, or to fill their places with some of the younger men who have come to the front since 1898. Congress has, however, shown little sympathy for the former procedure, on the ground that it rapidly loads up the retired list with officers of high rank. Singularly enough, it does not object to a similar process of weeding out the older naval officers now going on right merrily, any more than it does to putting numberless loafers and deserters upon the pension lists. The promotions made last week stimulate the hopes and ambition of every officer by demonstrating that long and faithful service will not be overlooked.

Secretary Shaw's proposed regulations for the inspection of baggage belonging to returning American travellers probably go as far as is possible under the law. His plan is, in the first place, to hand each outgoing tourist a circular, fully setting forth the statutes as respects duties and declarations. Then the repatriated American is to pack his trunk so that the dutiable goods he has to declare will be on top and ready to the inspector's hand. That official is to credit the passenger's oath, to collect duty only on the articles declared, and to refrain from delving into trunks except in cases where the service has information that smuggling is being attempted. Even then the examination is to be conducted on a part of the dock screened off from the public, so that the spectacle of baggage gutted as by looters, and underwear flung about the pier, will no more remain as the first introduction of foreigners to Ameri-

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can official delicacy. Mr. Shaw is to be highly commended for having so far listened to the prayer of the ladies who have been memorializing him for a modification of the existing barbarous regulations. He has acted like a man of sense; and if Congress would only muster an equal amount, and return to the McKinley baggage law altogether, a national reproach would be removed.

If Boss Platt was to be canonized at all, it cannot be denied that the "Amen-Corner" tributes to him on Friday last were paid with fitting accompaniments of harlequin and circus clown. Mr. Depew, in his character of machine jester, thought it infinitely amusing to tell the company how Platt absorbs all the powers and perquisites of that Senatorship which he contemptuously flung to "Our Chauncey," as a cook would throw a crust to an importunate beggar. Ex-Gov. Black joined the merry-making with a handsome certificate to Platt as the boss who "never betrayed," and whose position was "never in doubt." This came trippingly from the tongue of the man who, in 1897, told all the world of Platt's treachery to him and treason to the party. But the greatest mirth-producer of them all was Secretary Root, who, amid screams of laughter, we should suppose, produced a "glowing eulogy" of Senator Platt. The aim of the speakers seemed to be to see who could most completely throw decency and character to the winds. First prize should go to Secretary Root, so far as we can make out from the report of the speeches in praise of a man whose political influence he has himself declared to have been wholly bad.

More complete details of the election in Chicago on April 1 indicate that the outcome may well be regarded as highly gratifying to the friends of good government, there and elsewhere. Unfortunately for the general understanding of the result, the Chicago correspondents insisted upon "featuring" in the early reports the reëlection of that bizarre character, "Bath-house" John Coughlin, whose absurd notoriety throughout the country furnished a pretext for headlines dear to the yellow heart. The fact is that the Municipal Voters' League went into the eight supposedly hopeless wards, and, out of the eight, succeeded in defeating four of the notorious corruptionists of the Board of Aldermen. On account of these efforts, and the excellent results in other parts of the city, three-fourths of the members of the new Board of Aldermen are men who have either already behaved with credit in the Council, or who have such a standing in the community as to afford a reasonable presumption that they will work in the public interests. Not the least of the causes for joy over the result is the final abolition of the township system that existed within the city, which has been a source of endless scandal. Altogether the League has a right to congratulate itself. As a result of more than six years of persistent fighting, it has carried the city safely through a critical period of its history, and the outlook was never brighter than it is to-day.

That "British camp" near New Orleans, which the Governor of Louisiana excitedly reports to Secretary Hay, must be peopled by ghostly visitants from the graves in that vicinity which Andrew Jackson filled with British soldiers. If the British Government is buying horses and mules and fodder and provisions in this country, it is acting perfectly within its rights, as are those American citizens who embrace the opportunity to dispose of their produce to a good cash purchaser. In order to ship horses and cattle, there must be some sort of place to receive and keep them, and to call it a "camp" does not make it a military occupation of our soil by a foreign Power, as Gov. Heard seems to imagine. Nor in all this is there any violation of our neutrality laws. Americans could even sell munitions of war to Great Britain, and this Government could not interfere. A naval or military expedition fitted out on our shores against a foreign country we should be bound to prevent; but the rest is simply lawful commerce, which it is our duty to protect, not suppress, and the British Minister is justified in asking, as he is said to have done, that his agents in Louisiana be protected in their lawful pursuits.

That extraordinary human document, the last will and testament of Cecil Rhodes, is based upon a single idea—the advancement of the English-speaking race towards the domination of the world. It is needless at this time to discuss this theory of a conquering Anglo-Saxondom. It is a political axiom which we utterly distrust, and we recall who it was that told the first earth-dwellers, "Ye shall be as gods." Mr. Rhodes never learned that this was rather a temptation to mankind in general than a promise to the Anglo-Saxon race. What he has done is to endow lavishly upwards of a hundred scholarships at his own university, Oxford. This shows, to begin with, the confidence of a very shrewd and absolutely unsentimental promoter of vast financial schemes, in what is usually regarded as a dilettante and ultra-academic education. Mr. Rhodes believed that leaders of men like himself were best bred among the leisurely studies and the frank comradeship in sport of the English college. That he had in mind a kind of moral efficiency, rather than mere intellectual alertness and culture, is shown in the very curious provisions under which the beneficiaries of his scholarships are to be selected. To intellectual capacity only a minority account of four-tenths is to be allotted; the remaining six points are based upon love of sport, "manly qualities, and moral force." One can see here an echo of Mr. Rhodes's own academic career, and the desire, natural and even pathetic, to create strenuous passmen after his own image. The assignment of two scholarships to every State and Territory of the United States is the most striking feature of the plan. It is an inspiring idea, to bring together in the close companionship of English college life, an élite of American and English students. One may doubt that such association will produce numbers of Cecil Rhodeses for the militant purposes of the two great English-speaking nations, but one cannot doubt that it will lead to a greater friendliness between two nations which should be friends.

Every one is delighted to find that Lord Rosebery's name leads the list of trustees, even if it appears somewhat incongruously upon the same board with Dr. Jameson and Mr. Beit. At Oxford there is naturally only one voice—and that of commendation. But the Masters of the various colleges are beginning to ponder the practical implications of this astounding gift. The aristocratic Christ Church practically warns off all Rhodes Scholars unless they are willing to spend the whole of the $1,500 stipend in term time—an interesting, because unconscious, opinion as to the average cost of living at this famous college. New College and Magdalen, which divide with Christ Church the honors for numbers and social prestige, have not been heard from. All Souls', which, by deed of foundation, accepts only four undergraduates, is not affected by the new dispensation. Balliol, from a scholar's point of view the foremost of the Oxford colleges, is friendly to the project. In general, it may be said that Oxford, and especially the smaller colleges, will welcome the Rhodes Scholars heartily. No thoughtful educator will fail to see, however, that there are great practical difficulties in applying to candidates the kind of tests which the will stipulates. The authorities of the Oxford colleges also remind the public that the Rhodes scholarships, as is almost inevitably the case with this form of benefaction, add to the charges of the colleges without supplying sufficient additional revenue. In general there is a large idealism and, possibly, impracticability about the bequest, surprising in view of Mr. Rhodes's great practical achievements. Dealing with these high questions of education and of international conciliation, he leaves the somewhat pathetic impression of one who "wanders in a world unrealized." But let our readers turn to our London letter.

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SINCERITY WITH CUBA.

All public policy ought to be sincere and straightforward, but there are peculiar reasons why our dealings with Cuba should be free from the suspicion of tortuousness. In addition to the special and solemn obligations which we took upon ourselves in regard to that island, at the beginning of the Spanish war, we have a very delicate political and governmental problem on our hands. We are proposing to solve it by one of those legal fictions so dear to the Anglo-Saxon mind. Cuba is to be treated as if she were independent; yet we all know, and the Cubans know, that it is only a quasi-independence that is in contemplation. The American protectorate over the island is not to be declared, but is to be tacitly exercised nevertheless. Obviously, the relations of the two countries, under such circumstances, will have to be very circumspectly managed and nicely balanced. This makes the case one for absolute good faith and proceedings, within the limits mutually agreed upon, entirely above board. Failing such a course, there will be certain fiasco.

We rehearse these simple truths merely in order to apply them to the latest proposal respecting Cuba. Admiral Bradford has returned from his naval survey of Cuban harbors, and is to urge our Government to demand a naval station at Havana. The reasons he gives are partly based on that "high-priori" naval strategy into which the mind of the awe-stricken layman cannot, of course, pretend to venture. But his excuse for passing by the magnificent harbors of Guantánamo and Nipe sounds very much like the argument of one who asks, with Franklin, why man is a reasonable being unless for the purpose of inventing a reason for what he wants to do. It seems that in neither of the otherwise perfectly satisfactory sites would "labor be available in time of peace" to erect the necessary shops, docks, etc. Therefore, concludes Admiral Bradford, Havana must be the naval station which the Cubans, under the Platt amendment, are to be asked to sell or lease to the United States.

Now, what are the objections to this proposal, and why should the President overrule it at this time? We pass by the large question of transcendental naval strategy, simply remarking that, if the President and Congress were to let the strategists have their way, we should soon fall to fortifying every spare island in the seven seas, and should have frowning fortifications on every headland. It is enough to point to the exceptional circumstances at Havana which make this particular scheme wholly inadvisable. Strategy is all very well, but statecraft is something higher; and unless Mr. Roosevelt wishes to see the Cubans wrought to a high pitch of suspicion and distrust and cynical despair, and to have his whole Cuban policy put in imminent peril, he will quietly order Admiral Bradford to pigeon-hole his report on Cuban coaling and naval stations.

Why the demand for a naval station at Havana would appear to the Cubans to be an outrage, is clear to any one who looks at the situation as they must view it, and as the Havana press pictures it from day to day. The natives remain, in spite of all we have said, and notwithstanding all our Presidential proclamations, highly incredulous about our withdrawal from Cuba. They doubt if our flag over Morro Castle will ever come down. What would they say if it did come down, only to be run up again a little further around the bay over an American naval station? They would call it a trick, a cheat, an insult; and the look of the thing would justify such language. In the very issue of the *Tribune* containing Admiral Bradford's cool proposals, appears a letter from a Havana correspondent showing how inflammable is Cuban public opinion on this question. President-elect, Palma has protested against a naval station at Havana, and "in this," says the correspondent, "he is sustained by so unanimous and so pronounced a sentiment that to attempt such a concession, after having once declared against it, would wreck his Administration."

In that single statement of fact, which is undoubtedly correct, the President would find his warrant in calling a halt upon our impatient naval strategists. To let them go ahead would be to doom President Palma to failure in advance, and if he fails, the announced American policy is also a failure. This is what we have to bear in mind. The Cuban question is, at best, intricate and delicate. The rôle we have undertaken is extremely difficult. For success in it, we require perfect sincerity and absolute truthfulness in all our dealings with the Cubans. If we attempt to be sly, to overreach them, to have unrevealed plans and purposes in the back of our heads, to drive a sharp bargain, to go upon the theory that they cannot be trusted, but that they will trust us no matter how circuitous a route we follow—we shall surely make a botch of it.

The Cubans need no instruction in craft and cunning from us. To undertake the astute and subtle line of policy with them would be as great a mistake as was the dispatch of Lord Palmerston's agent to Italy to teach, as Disraeli said, the countrymen of Machiavelli how to play the game of unscrupulous politics. If we have any hidden Jesuitical schemes concerning Cuba, we shall do ill to attempt to impose them upon the countrymen of Loyola and Molina and Suarez. They can give us points in double dealing and casuistry and beat us hollow. Our only hope is in simple faith and manly honor; and our Cuban policy can succeed only as the Cubans are convinced that we have those qualities and mean to act upon them. Our Cuban diplomacy will be wholly at fault if it resolves itself into "veiled menace or tart lecturing," and does not show itself, rather, what John Morley declares diplomacy to be at its best, when it is "the beneficent art of so reconciling interests, soothing jealous suceptibilities, allaying apprehensions, organizing influences, inventing solutions, that the world may move with something like steadiness along the grooves of deep pacific policy."

"LABOR" AND PRINCIPLE.

The late President McKinley was persuaded by the politicians of the Keystone State to appoint Mr. Terence V. Powderly to the office of Commissioner of Immigration. Powderly had been for some years the head of the organization styled the Knights of Labor. He was not known to possess any qualifications for the office for which he was named, but was believed to possess efficiency as a politician. Shortly after he assumed his new responsibilities at Washington he vindicated his reputation as a "hustler" by writing a letter to Mr. Thomas Fitchie, the head of the Immigration Office in New York, urging him to send his subordinate officer, Mr. McSweeney, to Connecticut to work for the President's private secretary, Mr. Porter, who was a candidate for the nomination for Governor of that State. The method by which Mr. McSweeney was to assist in this enterprise was original and interesting. He was to get Democrats to vote at the Republican primaries. The letter was as follows:

"TREASURY DEPARTMENT, OFFICE OF COMMISSIONER-GENERAL OF IMMIGRATION, WASHINGTON, D. C., AUGUST 5, 1898.

"MY DEAR MR. FITCHIE:

"I have just had a long interview with Mr. Porter, the President's private secretary, who is a candidate for Governor of Connecticut. He wants help to carry the primaries, and it is, in a sense, an Administration fight. In Bridgeport they have taken snap action in calling the caucuses for to-morrow night; this he did not know until after he arranged for the interview with me. Under the rules of the party in that State, this year, any one who 'believes in the principles of the Republican party and who will vote for the nominees' may vote in caucuses; and now to the point. Can you reach any one in that city who will assist Mr. Porter to-morrow evening? I know the time is short. The Mayor of Bridgeport, Mayor Taylor, is friendly to Porter, but he is a candidate. Can't Mr. McSweeney run over and get some of his Democratic friends to get into the caucuses and help our friends out? I make this suggestion, and ask you to do what you can. I am writing other friends on the subject. If you have any other one who understands Connecticut politics, who can be trusted, get him to work.

"With best wishes, I remain sincerely yours, T. V. POWDERLY."

We have the best reason to believe that Mr. Fitchie did not make to his subordinate, Mr. McSweeney, the suggestion which his chief, Mr. Powderly, desired, and that no steps were taken by the Immigration Office in New York

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to pack the Republican primaries in Bridgeport with Democratic voters.

Other difficulties arose between Powderly and Fitchie, from time to time. About January 1, 1900, Powderly sent a certain George Sladovich to Ellis Island to serve as interpreter. Shortly after reporting for duty he gave evidence of being on terms of too great intimacy with shyster lawyers, ticket scalpers, and other harpies who infest the immigration station, and at the same time newspaper clippings and letters making complaint about his past life were received by Commissioner Fitchie. His appointment was a temporary one, and when the complaints became so frequent and so circumstantial, Mr. Fitchie wrote to the Austro-Hungarian Consul, asking him if there was any truth in them. After some delay, the Austro-Hungarian Consulate reported that Sladovich was, if not a criminal, a fugitive from justice. His temporary appointment being about to expire, the correspondence was transmitted to the Bureau without comment, and immediately Mr. Powderly commenced a series of letters in which the facts were distorted, demanding that Sladovich be continued in the service, and pressure was brought to bear to this end. A civil-service list of three names was received for interpreter in the Serbo-Croatian languages, which contained Sladovich's name. In reply to question 10, which relates to whether the applicant has ever been indicted for a crime, Sladovich falsely answered "No." These facts were reported by Mr. Fitchie to the Commissioner-General, with the request that the matter be reported to the Civil-Service Commissioners, and Sladovich's name crossed from the civil-service list; on which request no action was taken.

The next move was the receipt of a letter by Commissioner Fitchie from Mr. Powderly, enclosing a copy of the original transcript of court proceedings from Croatia, with a sworn translation made by Sladovich himself, in which it was made to appear that he was entirely innocent of crime, and that, while he had been indicted, the court had reversed itself and had given him a triumphant acquittal. This translation was found, upon examination, to be false; the very documents which he had submitted, when properly translated, showed that he had been convicted of a crime, with two others; that he had, with the others, been granted a new trial; that the two had remained and were reconvicted, but that Sladovich had fled from the jurisdiction of the court. Mr. Fitchie's response to this letter was an appeal to the Secretary of the Treasury, stating the facts, and asking him to protect him from such attempts to foist criminals upon the service. The only reply was a vague and indefinite letter from Powderly, which said that he was trying to [illegible] justice.

Subsequently Mr. Powderly got his man appointed inspector at New Orleans, where he now is. The inspector formerly in charge at New Orleans, Mr. John A. Wright, now stationed in New York, has stated repeatedly that one of his reasons for applying to be transferred from New Orleans was the action of Sladovich. A New Orleans paper recently stated that Doctor Sladovich had examined a ship with over 700 Italians aboard, and that not a single one had been held up. In view of the notorious fact that those Italians are sent to New Orleans who are afraid to pass the inspection at New York, and that the best Italian ship coming to this port always contains a certain percentage of immigrants who are not only held up, but finally deported, such a general delivery furnishes presumptive evidence that the immigration laws at New Orleans are not being enforced.

Meanwhile, the differences between Powderly and Fitchie have led the President to make a clean sweep at Ellis Island, by an infraction of the principles of civil-service reform which ought not to pass unchallenged. In order to get rid of McSweeney, the Assistant Commissioner, without giving reasons, it was necessary to take his place out of the classified service. That the good of the service was not promoted by this act may be inferred from more than one circumstance. If Powderly was an unfit man for his place, the fact that he was in a constant quarrel with Fitchie and McSweeney was creditable to them. It was presumptive evidence that they were doing right, and it pointed to the clear duty on the President's part to find out on which side justice lay, and to satisfy the public that he was doing right also. The regular and usual procedure in such a case, if the Ellis Island office really needed "cleaning out," would have been to remove the responsible chief of the office and put somebody in the place who would be the real head, and not, as was alleged of Mr. Fitchie, a mere figurehead. That could have been done without violation of the principles of the civil service to which the President has been so strongly committed in the past. Instead of taking this unequivocal course, the President first removed the office of Assistant Commissioner out of the classified service, then called for McSweeney's resignation, and appointed, or caused to be appointed, or intends to appoint, his own friend Murray to McSweeney's place. We know nothing against Mr. Murray, but his merits cannot render harmless the subterfuge to which he owes his appointment.

THE STEEL COMPANY'S FINANCES.

The quarterly report of the Steel Corporation reflects, as was to be expected, the great prosperity of the iron trade. The past quarter's profits, $26,200,000, are, it is true, the smallest of any quarter in the twelvemonth, but this was sufficiently foreshadowed in the January statement, where it was clearly pointed out that the closing of lake navigation cut off the company's mining and transportation earnings. The publication of this report gives occasion to speak again of the two important services which the company's management has rendered to sound finance. It might have suppressed reports, except when convenient to itself, leaving the public to imagine that October's $12,000,000 monthly earnings were to be indefinitely repeated. It might, in the language of the trade, have "forced the market," by joining hands with its only too willing competitors, and driving the price of steel and iron to figures which would have actually repeated last autumn's heavy profits. For either policy it might have found abundant precedent, but it rejected both. It adopted a form of statement of earnings far more complete than any which an industrial concern had previously ventured, and adhered to that policy in the face of decreasing monthly profits. It set its face steadfastly against the efforts of fellow-manufacturers who insisted, angrily and persistently, on putting up prices in full proportion to urgent trade demands. These are services to which, whatever occurs in industrial finance hereafter, the public should give generous recognition.

We have frequently pointed out that the more serious pitfalls in the way of this notable undertaking were financial, not industrial. The directors last week approved the proposition to issue $250,000,000 bonds, of which $50,000,000 go to raise money for needed improvement to the mills, and $200,000,000 to take up an equal amount of preferred share capital. As to the first appropriation, we have already expressed the opinion that the money should have come, in part at least, from the funds diverted into dividends on the common stock. The plan for converting one-fifth of the company's share capital into bonds, however, raises a more serious question. The main objection to this project has been tersely expressed by so sound and experienced a trade organ as the *Engineering and Mining Journal*, which remarks:

> "In a business which is subject to such fluctuations as the iron and steel trade, it is never wise nor safe to substitute fixed charges, which must be met, for dividend payments, which can be postponed in a bad year. This is an axiom which even so powerful a company cannot disregard."

The conversion of share capital into bonds is an experiment always to be undertaken with the utmost regard to future possibilities of diminished earnings, and to be rejected, in our judgment, unless circumstances make it imperatively necessary. Had there, for instance, been an adjacent property which the Steel Corporation absolutely needed for its business purposes, and had the money market been in such condition that the requisite capital could not be raised ex-

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cept through the sale of bonds, we think the expedient would have been defensible.

But the Steel Corporation's proposed conversion is not a case in point. The $200,000,000 funded debt to be created adds not a dollar's worth of property to the company. It saves, undoubtedly, in annual outlay as compared with the fiscal year just closed. The transformation of two hundred million dollars' capital from 7 per cent. preferred shares into 5 per cent. second-mortgage bonds will save four million dollars annually to the company, so long as the dividend on the existing preferred share capital is earned. The directors were also careful to point out that conversion is not compulsory. No one who chooses to take his chances for future 7 per cent. dividends on his stock will be forced to accept a 5 per cent. bond instead. But that phase of the matter is, we should say, somewhat beside the question.

It is the financial wisdom of the policy, from a corporation's own point of view, which is under debate. The Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul Railway has outstanding upwards of forty millions' worth of 7 per cent. preferred shares. The conversion of this respectable sum of capital into 5 per cents would save $800,000 annually, and enable the company to pay nearly 2 per cent. extra on its common shares. Instead of proposing such a policy, even when the stock was selling at low prices, the company made some older mortgages convertible into stock, and has thus converted thirty millions of its funded debt in the past generation. The Chicago and Northwestern's $22,000,000 7 per cent. preferred stock would have offered a similar annual saving of some $400,000 through such a funding plan. The Lackawanna Company pays 7 per cent. on $26,000,000 common shares. If it had funded half of this capital into bonds at 5 per cent., it could obviously pay 9 per cent. on what was left. Why have these companies, with their shrewd and alert financial management, failed, in the numerous vicissitudes of trade and prices, to make use of this philosopher's stone of profit? If the expedient was wise for the Steel Corporation, surely the railway companies have been remiss in their duty to their shareholders.

We have had a number of striking illustrations, very lately, of the possibilities involved in such a policy. Each month emphasizes the conviction that these huge industrial corporations are experiments. We are confronted, on the other hand, with perfectly unmistakable evidence that the tendency of the time, in many quarters, is to fling aside all restraint imposed by the bitter recollections of 1893, and to pile up the liabilities of ambitious corporations as if the present industrial "boom" were to last for ever. We say, therefore, that, wholly irrespective of the result on the Steel Corporation's own finances, its move in this line is a very serious thing. There are interests to consider, it must not be forgotten, quite apart from the interests of the Steel Corporation's constituency. Glancing over the list at random, we can point out nineteen separate industrial companies, with aggregate preferred share capital of $238,000,000, every dollar of which draws 7 per cent. annual dividends, largely cumulative, and every dollar of which has as much *prima-facie* right to conversion into bonds as the Steel preferred. People who argue that the Steel Corporation's action, as ratified by its Board of Directors, will not exert a most baleful influence on these other corporations, show that they do not understand the history of American finance. For we wish to make this point emphatically, that the inducement to such conversion, in the case of a board of managers which suspects disaster, will be ten-fold greater than in a sound and solvent corporation.

ACADEMIC STUDIES AND DEGREES.

A Ministerial scheme for the reorganization of secondary education in France bears striking analogies to the recent development of collegiate training in this country. At present the secondary schools, which correspond roughly in their later years to our colleges, are conducted upon the principle of "bifurcation"—that is, scientific and humanistic studies are separated from the first, and each course has its appropriate degree—respectively, Bachelier ès Sciences and Bachelier ès Lettres. Practically, the latter degree has been the most valued; it has, in fact, been required for entrance into the liberal professions, and it carries something of the social prestige of the traditional degree in arts. Against this degree, with its requirements of the ancient languages and philosophy, the same complaints have been made that were used against the traditional college course in America—its impracticability, and its failure to recognize science and modern languages, with its lack of application to an industrial democracy.

Just how the French Ministry proposes to secure the "democratization" of secondary education is aside from our present purpose. Suffice it to say that the older scientific and modern-language courses are to be of seven years' duration, like the classical course; that each course is to be subdivided into periods of four and three years, so that those who have no marked scholarly capacity may withdraw with a sufficient general education, and even enter upon their professional studies, at the end of the first "cycle"; while those who continue to the baccalaureate degree may follow either the traditional courses in philology and philosophy, or reach the same goal after three years' study in the sciences and the modern languages. Criticism of a plan which resembles strikingly the American college course under the elective system, would point out the confusion of two wholly different kinds of education—one absolute and humanistic, one mediatory and utilitarian.

This confusion, if confusion it be, we have in practically every American college to-day. Wherever the elective system has been fully established we see, beside the students who follow "humane letters" in the old sense, and come out of college educated, to be sure, but unprepared for any particular profession, students who are following natural science to the practical exclusion of the so-called "humanities." These students are often in their upper-class years following strictly professional studies; in fact, the practice of several universities allows them to enter the professional school at the end of their junior year. Now, it is not the time to plead the cause of one education against the other, but it does seem fair that somewhere or other the difference of intention should be recognized. For centuries the degree of Bachelor of Arts has stood for disinterested and "clerkly" study, and there is a real confusion of ideals in applying this historic degree to a candidate who offers a modicum of modern languages and history to adorn a four years' period spent over a laboratory table. The training of such a student has been in science, and he is a Bachelor of Science. To call him otherwise is to class him where he does not belong.

We are aware of the theory of academic equivalents, which is fairly admissible for the university studies. President Gilman, in starting the "group system" in the undergraduate department of Johns Hopkins University, practically gave his assent to the theory that it matters little what is taught; much how it is taught. President Eliot of Harvard has forced upon this entire country, with something very like genius, his belief that all subjects of college study are of essentially equal educative value, so they be taught equally well. It is due to his influence that the colleges have generally yielded Greek, and are likely to yield Latin. He, too, is responsible for the tendency to crown the most diverse college courses with the single degree of Bachelor of Arts. With such an authority one differs with great reluctance; as against a condition which has pretty thoroughly established itself, one probably protests in vain. But it is well to see if a course in the humanities does not yet mean something, not necessarily superior to but different from the great variety of curricula which borrow its name and degree.

It is hard to see how any uniform style of nomenclature or any system of academic polity which treats different things as if they were the same, can

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do away with the prime distinction between the humanities and the sciences—the studies that lead to knowledge of man, with the flexibility of mind which we call culture, and the studies that lead to knowledge of nature, with immediate practical efficiency. This is a very real difference which is in danger of being obscured. There is no true quarrel between the two ideals. The liberally educated man must in his own time and way become specially educated, and the specially educated man must in life, if not in college walls, seek his liberal education. Only it is absurd to take the two at graduation and affirm by the letters of their degree that both are liberally educated, when one is not.

It should not be forgotten that the degree of Bachelor of Arts has always been in its essence an aristocratic or, if you will, a "clerkly" degree. Until very recent times it has been sought after only by students who had in view the scholar's life or some learned profession. A state of things where the greater majority of Bachelors go into commerce or industry is of yesterday. The influx of those who brought no scholarly ideals and abundant practical needs has changed the whole aspect of college education. In many ways it has quickened it to new life, in other ways it has forced the changing of standards which should have been immutable. These new comers in the colleges were and are welcome. It was fitting that a democratic education adapted to their needs should be worked out, and that the traditional courses in humane letters should gain from this contact with actuality. The mistake was in allowing this new and democratic training to borrow the name and seriously affect the character of the course in arts. The two should have, as they do in several institutions, lived together each under its appropriate name and degree. As things go in our American society, only a few college-bred men are in any fair sense—only a few need to be—Bachelors of Arts. The great majority are Bachelors of Science or Bachelors of Letters, and the institutions which have the courage to call them so have severe logic on their side as well as common sense. The attempt in France or elsewhere to democratize the degree in arts, which is essentially aristocratic, must bring with it no small danger of "plebification."

MR. CECIL RHODES.

LONDON, March 27, 1902.

The death of Mr. Cecil Rhodes does not for the moment affect the situation in South Africa. So long as the war lasted, he was resolved to remain in private life, seeing no means of useful interference. But his departure is nevertheless a momentous event, for, had he outlived the war, he would doubtless have thrown himself into the task of pacifying the hostile elements in the country, and of trying to rebuild the shattered fabric of colonial government. He was by far the strongest personality in South Africa; and although the Dutch had become profoundly alienated from him since the raid of 1895, he had not abandoned the hope of recovering some measure of their confidence, and of inducing them to work in harmony with their fellow-citizens of English stock, as in the days when he was Prime Minister of Cape Colony. Personally, he liked the Dutch, for whose strength of character and sense of personal dignity he was fond of expressing his admiration. He was a strenuous advocate of colonial self-government, and would have done his best to secure its immediate restoration to Cape Colony. His disappearance may thus be regarded as a loss to the prospects, in no case very bright, of reconcilement in South Africa.

Cecil Rhodes was the son of a clergyman of the Church of England, rector of Bishop's Stortford, a small town half way between London and Cambridge. He was educated at the grammar school of the town, and is thus another instance to be added to the many which show how little ground there is for the notion, sedulously propagated and generally accepted by the English, that what is called a "public-school training" is specially favorable to the development of energy, boldness, and the talent for ruling men. His lungs were so weak that at nineteen he was sent to live with a brother in Natal, whence he presently drifted to the recently discovered diamond mines at Kimberley, and spent a number of years there acquiring "claims," and laying the foundations of his immense fortune, while returning from time to time to England to keep his terms and pass his examinations at Oxford. Ultimately he effected a consolidation of all the numerous interests at the diamond mines into one huge company, of which he became the ruling spirit, and turned to politics. His career thereafter is known to all the world.

The characteristic note of his intellect was its power of concentration. He had no very wide range of tastes and interests, nor did his mind play freely upon different subjects. It was absorbed by a few ideas, was accustomed to brood upon them, and was not easily drawn off, even in general society, to other topics. Literature and art seemed to have no great attraction for him. The only department of history which he cared for was the history of the Roman Empire, apparently because it touched his imagination and suggested to him analogies with the history of the British Empire as it has grown during the last two centuries. Indeed, he was so fond of it as to have special translations made for his own use of the works of those more obscure historians of the later imperial period who had not been turned into English; for though he had taken his degree at Oxford, he had no special turn for languages, and had allowed his Latin and Greek to grow rusty. But though he did not shine in general conversation, those who talked with him were always impressed by the force with which he spoke on any practical question. He had always formed his views for himself; he held them with tenacity; he stated them with an air of almost passionate conviction, reiterating them again and again in almost the same words, and seldom seeming to recognize the worth of any objections that might be brought against them. He could, when it was necessary, attend carefully to details and be patient in working them out. No such success as he achieved in business and (for a time) in politics would have been possible without a mastery of details. But he liked better to deal with large conceptions, and to dwell upon a few dominant facts or forces, as if these were the only things that needed to be regarded.

Though he sat for many years in the Cape Parliament and led it as Prime Minister, he lacked the ordinary accomplishments of the practical politician. He was a powerful rather than a persuasive speaker, and by no means skilful in debate; sometimes offending people whom he ought to have conciliated, and often blurting out opinions which it would have been prudent to conceal. His colleagues in the Ministry were always nervous when he rose, though his talent for going straight to the vital issues, and the force of his personality, made him effective. He might in this respect be compared to Bismarck (although the latter was a much greater master of expression), and while not an orator in the recognized sense of the word, he often struck out phrases of extraordinary strength and point.

Although Cecil Rhodes was a sociable man, hospitable and always surrounded by friends, his intellectual life was solitary and isolated. He did not seem to profit much by the counsel of others, nor indeed to feel the need of consulting others. He thought things out for himself, brooding upon them in a half-dreamy way, which seemed in contrast to the steady direction of his thoughts to practical aims. This habit constituted part of his strength. It gave his views consistency and solidity. He had reflected so deeply that he felt sure of himself, and was not easily turned from his purpose. But it had also a weak side: it gave him an undue confidence in his own star, a confidence fostered by the deference which he received from all those who surrounded him, among whom he found no equal. And by putting him out of sympathy with the persons he had to deal with, it affected his judgment. He was so self-absorbed as not always to foresee how his action would strike other people. There can be little doubt that the anger which the colonial Dutch showed against him after the raid of December, 1895, was not foreseen by him, and that, even as late as 1897, he expected to win over enough of their votes to recover his political position in the colony. Men far inferior to himself perceived that this was not to be hoped for.

This mistake—the capital mistake of his life—which brought his political career to a close, was largely due to a singular feature of his character. He had a clear view and a firm grasp of all material forces. He knew how to use money and how to appeal to men's interests; but he did not equally appreciate the influence of sentiment. He had carried the bulk of the colonial Dutch with him in his struggle against President Kruger, because the colonial farmers resented the tariff which the Transvaal Government had placed on their produce, and thus he had come to look upon the whole question as one of economic interests. When the racial feeling of the Dutch burst into a strong flame on hearing of the attack upon the republic of their

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kinsfolk, and when this feeling continued to burn strong against himself, effacing from their minds the recollection of their old grudges against the Kruger Government, he was taken by surprise. A force was at work of which his philosophy had made but slight account.

It was said of him by one of his South African colleagues that, proud as they were of his abilities, and much as they found to like in his character, he had done something to lower the tone of their political life by his constant appeal to material considerations. Yet, highly as he valued money for the political uses to which it could be put, he had a soul above money, and never thought of turning aside from his larger aims in order to accumulate wealth. He had no taste for vulgar luxury, and spent little upon his own enjoyment. He was generous in his gifts, and lavish in carrying out any purpose which appealed to his imagination. Neither was there anything petty or malignant about his nature. He roused strong antagonisms as well as inspired strong attachments; but he did not seem to be moved by personal resentments, and would often speak in a genial and liberal way of those who had attacked or opposed him most bitterly. The love of fame and the love of power did no doubt largely influence his course, but they were not separated in his mind from the desire to extend the dominion and consolidate the power of England.

One of the most incontestable proofs that he had a kind of greatness is to be found in the sort of fascination which he exerted over most of those with whom he came in contact. He found it natural to lead and influence men because he had initiative. He made the impression of knowing exactly what he wanted, of knowing how he meant to attain it, of being quite determined to attain it by one means or another. His frankness and directness, which had something Bismarckian about them, heightened this impression. Nothing so much disposes men to follow as the self-confidence of a leader with a record of success. Cecil Rhodes did not boast, but it was easy to see that he had faith in himself.

He belonged to a type of man less common in modern times and civilized countries, because the conditions are less favorable to their development than they were in the Middle Ages or have been in Asia—the type which may be called in no unfavorable sense that of the Adventurer, the man whose imagination is fired by ambition, and whose power of seeing and grasping facts becomes effective by being united to boldness in execution. This type most usually appeared in war, and carried to greatness men whose talent lay in military leadership. Now it has other engines of power available. Mr. Rhodes is the first person who has conspicuously known how to use finance and financial combinations on a large scale as a means of attaining political power and pursuing large political aims. He is a new form of the type, a form suited to the conditions of a still undeveloped country like South Africa. Even those who censure some of his acts cannot but admit that his aims were not solely personal, that he was cast in a large mould, and that an unkind fate denied him the chance which he desired of retrieving the chief error of his life. He will certainly be remembered as one of the most striking and brilliant figures of his time.

THE AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY.

BOSTON, April 5, 1902.

The one hundred and fourteenth Meeting of the Oriental Society took place on April 3 to 5, under the auspices of the trustees of the Boston Public Library, who were good enough to lend the lecture-hall of the Library for the sessions of the Society. While the attendance was not unusually large, the number of papers presented (over sixty altogether) exceeded precedent, and it was necessary to cut down some of the communications to the shortest measure consistent with a clear explanation of the contents, in order to allow any time for discussion between the papers, to each of which in any circumstances a scant quarter of an hour is allotted.

As usual, the papers fell into two main groups, Aryan and Semitic; but there was also a sprinkling of information interesting to both sides, which fell gratefully upon the specialists present. A refreshing study of this sort was one by Dr. Scott, on the Owls and Parrots of Polynesia, from which, although political questions are by mutual consent usually not discussed in the meetings of the Society, allusions to the Eagle also were not omitted, but they were inserted so delicately that neither Imperialist nor anti-Imperialist felt offended at the happy comparison of that bird's expanded wings to these Expanded States. From Manila itself came a letter acquainting the Society with the fact that a number of valuable manuscripts written by the Spanish friars in regard to Polynesian dialects had been discovered by the Department of Education, and papers on these dialects and on Tagálog grammar were read by Dr. Blake.

Some general reports and announcements made to the Society were of more than usual interest. Dr. Casanowicz sent an account of the exhibit of Oriental antiquities in the National Museum at Washington, which has a good collection of Egyptian, Assyrian, and Indian relics. Professor Jackson reported that the Parsi Panchayat of Bombay had kindly sent to the Society a gift of valuable manuscripts, and the Rev. Mr. Yohannan sent a description of the new Persian manuscripts at Columbia. Professor Moore, now of Harvard, distributed advance copies of the long-expected Index to the first twenty volumes of the Society's Journal, his modest announcement of its completion scarcely doing justice to himself as regards the skill and labor expended upon it. The Society has every reason to be thankful to Professor Moore and to Mrs. Moore, who aided him in this arduous work, though it was unable to show its appreciation in any other way than by electing Mrs. Moore to membership in the Society; which it was very glad to do in recognition both of her scholarly ability and of her devotion to the interests of the Society.

The collection of Arabic manuscripts at Yale was reviewed by Professor Torrey, who showed that it was the most important collection in the country after that at Princeton, and cordially invited all Arabic scholars to make use of it.

Professor Lanman, who is the successor of Professor Whitney in the Atharva Veda work which occupied the last years of Professor Whitney's life, announced the speedy completion of the translation of the Atharva with a critical commentary. This translation was made by Professor Whitney, and he had already done some of the exegetical labor required for its completion when he died. Professor Lanman assumed the responsibility of completing the volume, and has spent several years in bringing it to its present perfect form. As it comes now from the press, it is the most complete and exhaustive text critique and translation that has yet appeared in the field of Vedic criticism. Professor Lanman and the little world of Sanskrit scholars are alike to be congratulated on the result of his toil.

Another successor of Professor Whitney, in being a continuator of work begun by him, Professor Oertel, spoke of his renewed investigations of the Jaiminīya Brāhmana, a text prepared by Professor Whitney, but only now reviewed and critically compared with similar texts. Still another announcement (and exhibit) was made by Professor Bloomfield, who described himself also as a successor of Professor Whitney. In conjunction with Professor Garbe, he has just brought out a photographic reproduction of the Kashmirian text of the same Veda, a masterpiece of mechanical skill, and very creditable to the scholars who were willing to spend their time in overseeing so nice a piece of photography, though of course the scholar's work begins where the photographer's leaves off, and there is still to follow a critical edition of the text so handsomely put into permanent form by the aid of modern science.

To speak of the special papers: On the Semitic side, not courtesy alone puts foremost the able paper on the text of the archaic tablet of the E. A. Hoffman collection, presented by Miss Ogden and interpreted by Professor Barton. Two other ladies, members of the Society, also read papers, Miss Lucia Grieve offering a contribution on the evidence of the practice of suttee among the ancient Greeks, and Miss Runkle discussing a Pāli text. As indicated by their titles these papers belonged to the Aryan division, but further papers of general interest on the Semitic side were a handful of literary parallels to the Song of Songs, Professor Haupt leading with a paper on "Biblical Love-Dities"; an account of Syriac wedding and funeral songs by Mr. Huxley of Harvard; a paper on the name of the ferryman in the Babylonian story of the flood, by Mr. Langdon of Columbia, and Professor Wright's report on the excavation of Gezer. Other papers in the same department were offered by Dr. Ward, Dr. Arnold, and Dr. Foote (text critique); Professor Torrey, a Phœnician inscription; the Rev. Mr. Oussani, on a Christian Arabic legend; the Rev. Mr. Yohannan, on the influence of foreign languages on modern Syriac sounds, and by others. Another, which brought out considerable discussion, was by Professor Moore, on Hebrew metre.

On the Aryan side, further studies were presented by Professor Jackson, Indo-Iranian Notes; Professor Hopkins, on the numerical categories in the great Hindu epic and their historical significance; Dr. Gray, on the inscription of Behistun; Dr. Bolling, on the Vedic dual; Dr. Ryder, on Çakuntalâ; Dr. Woods, on the Mândûkya Upanishad; and others.

As has been customary for several years, papers relating to the study of religions were all read on Friday afternoon, before

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an audience composed in part of those to whom the more technical essays of specialists are indigestible. The chief paper of that class presented this year was one by Professor Toy, on Creator gods, a searching critique of the Langian system of theogony, as affecting the development of moral gods —a critique that merited far more time for discussion than could be given to it. Professor Jackson, at the same session, gave another instalment of his researches in regard to the religion of the Achæmenians, and, with the help of some excellent photographs, recalled very pleasantly for the Society's benefit his visit to the little-known "Avon of India," Ujjain. Some of the papers already enumerated were read at this session—that, for example, by Professor Haupt, who also brought three more technical studies. Professor Hopkins gave illustrations of epic beast fables in India, presenting at the same time some smaller contributions; popular superstitions in Arabia had been collected and were explained by the Rev. Mr. Oussani; and the Rev. Mr. Sanders of Aintab sent a contribution *on Jupiter Dolichenus*; while the Rev. Mr. Kohut contributed a paper on Jewish folklore—to name only some of those read at length or in condensed form.

Not the least valuable parts of the communications read at the annual Meeting are the papers from scholars abroad, sometimes missionaries in active service, sometimes students who take this opportunity of acquainting the Society with the latest facts, or it may be fancies, that have come under their observation. At the present Meeting the Society heard from Mr. Stratton, the Principal of Punjâb University, that he had recently been studying a Gandhâra (Kandahar) figure bearing a date which shows the work to have been made about 191 A. D. The most important of these communications came from Dr. Grierson in the form of a letter to the Secretary of the Society; and as the subject-matter is one of general interest, it may be spoken of somewhat fully. For several years Dr. Grierson has been the head of a great scientific enterprise which shows its character by its name, The Linguistic Survey. Out of the data furnished by this Survey, the first attempt thoroughly to coördinate the heterogeneous masses of dialects and languages in British India, have come new facts of ethnographical as well as linguistic bearing. In adjusting these facts and fitting them into their proper historical relations Dr. Grierson has shown a marked ability, and though the results of his keen combinations are not, as he admits, indisputable, yet he has furnished strong evidence in support of the belief that, besides repeated invasions from the Northwest, through the western passes of the Hindu Kush, and so on across Kandahar and Afghanistan into the Punjâb, there was another line of invasion from the headwaters of the Oxus down through the Chitral and Gilgit country, and that this northern invasion was conducted by tribes dialectically different from those which came directly from the West; that it was the latter who first broke into the Punjâb, and that the northern tribes, who eventually entered and conquered the same territory, split apart the homogeneous mass of first settlers, driving them east and south and into the northern hills, while they themselves formed with this semicircle a compact circle of Aryan tribes, differing in dialect but not in race from the earlier inhabitants thus pressed to the wall. The latter were the Vedic Aryans, while the inner circle were the ancestors of the later Sanskrit-speaking people, who called all this inner circle the holy Middle Land in antithesis to the outer rim of Aryan but not Sanskritized people.

It is impossible to display here the linguistic evidence for this theory, which has much in its favor. If, as seems likely, it shall prove the working hypothesis of the future, these Aryans must be credited with having repeated among themselves, on a small scale inside their own racial limits, exactly the procedure of the Aryans as a whole in respect to the Dravidians, who also were beaten southward and eastward and into the hill-country by the superior ability of the Aryans. Dr. Grierson, it may be added, gives a reserved approval—but who would speak with certainty of events so doubtful?—to the theory that these Dravidians formed a connecting link between the Finnish and Australian languages.

The Society had to regret the absence of its President for the second time in two years, the pressure of new duties and his immediate departure for Europe preventing Dr. Gilman from attending. Apart from this, the place of Chairman being well filled by Dr. Ward and Professor Toy in turn, the social side of the Meeting was as pleasant as the scientific was helpful and encouraging. In the latter regard, the number of young scholars who come bringing papers is a good omen for the continued activity of this now venerable society.

E. W. H.

Correspondence.

A BRITISH ACADEMY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: With regard to your recent article on "A British Academy," permit me to quote a few paragraphs from an address which I delivered last Christmas as President of the Pacific Coast Branch of the American Philological Association, on the "History of English Philology." These paragraphs, incomplete as they are, represent, I think, the first attempt to outline the earlier history of a British Academy. I submit them here with the distinct hope of eliciting some additions and corrections from some of your learned readers:

"The opposition against the opinion of 'rudeness' and 'barbarism' cast by some on the English Language and repudiated by English patriots from the time of Sir Thomas More and Ascham, led to an interesting movement, as far as I know not noticed in the histories of English literature and thought; a movement in favor of following the example set by Richelieu's foundation of the Académie Française (1635). If the purity of the language, its grammar, its orthography needed looking after, why not do this officially? *James Howell* writes in 1650: 'The new Academy of wits call'd l'Academie de beaux esprits, which the late Cardinall de Richelieu founded in Paris, is now in hand to reform the French Language in this particular [viz., in Orthography], and to weed it of all superfluous Letters, which makes the Toung differ so much from the Pen, etc.' (Letters, Sect. II., ed. 1650, p. 257; repeated in, if not quoted from, his ed. of Cotgrave, 1650). Howell writes this to justify his own orthographical 'weeding' out of superfluous letters, and perhaps in the hope of stimulating the foundation of a similar institution in England. It is the same Howell who, in 1630, despaired of calling English 'a regular language in regard, though often attempted by some choice wits, ther could never any Grammar or exact Syntaxis be made of it.' (What this lack of a grammar meant in the eyes of pedants, for centuries, show the words of Royal Ben, and his attempt to 'free' the language from such a blame! But Howell could not know of this first English syntax in 1630!)

"*Dryden* hopes in 1664, two years after the establishment of the Royal Society, for such an Academy to keep foreign words on the other side of the Channel, and to sanction the recent 'refinements' of the language. 'I am sorry,' he says, 'that (speaking so noble a language as we do) we have not a more certain measure of it, as they have in France, where they have an Academy erected for that purpose, and endowed with large privileges by the present King' (Epistle Dedic. Rival Ladies, 1664).

"The *Spectator* (No. 135, Aug. 4, 1711) despairs as to the leaving out of the relative pronoun, a question which 'will never be decided till we have something like an Academy that, by the best authorities and rules drawn from the analogy of language, shall settle all controversies between Grammar and Idiom.' And in May, 1712, follows what Dr. Johnson called the 'petty treatise' of *Swift*, viz, 'A Proposal for Correcting, Improving, and Ascertaining the English Tongue.' This expressed its author's desire for an 'Academy,' to correct and 'fix' the English language; 'a Society or an Academy to provide that no words which it shall give a sanction to be afterwards antiquated,' because the English language, 'so defective in Grammar,' was to be 'settled.' Perhaps the climax of Swift's statements is contained in the following words, which show how little he knew of the historical conditions of the development of language: 'I see no absolute necessity why any language should be perpetually changing'—a statement, though, which Swift may have merely copied from a man whose name even a modern philologist does not mention without humility and reverence, *Bentley*, who winds up a paragraph in the *earlier* dissertation (ed. Dyce 2, 13): 'Nay, it were no difficult contrivance, if the public had any regard to it, to make the English tongue immutable, unless hereafter some foreign nation shall invade and overrun it.'

"It required the services of a new St. George to kill these follies and 'Academic' dangers; and *Dr. Johnson* arose as the champion of English liberty, and as a man with an insight, at least, into the main fact of the history of language. He banished at least for a hundred years the dreams of 'regulating the language,' and he did it because he knew that the Germanic mind is not made of a fibre to submit to the dictations of an 'Academy.' He writes: 'If an Academy should be established for the cultivation of our style, which I, *who can never wish to see dependence multiplied, hope the spirit of English liberty will hinder or destroy*, let them, instead of compiling grammars and dictionaries, . . . stop the license of translators' (a humble service, to be sure, for an Academy!)."

Let me add to these remarks that we find an interesting early criticism on the French (?) Academy given innocently in Howell's edition of 'Cotgrave's Dictionary' (1650), *s. v.* "*Académié*, masc., *ée* fem. Besotted, puzled, or plundered with too much skill, or studying." We need not be astonished at not finding this word in the 'Dictionnaire de l'Académie'!

Let me add further to the above that an Academy, or rather several English Academies, were suggested long before the time of Howell and Dryden, by the eminent Antiquary *R. Carew of Anthony*, who, after

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becoming a member of what he calls the "Antiquarum" Society (the earliest Elizabethan attempt at an English Academy of the historical sciences), writes in 1605: "It imports no little disgrace to our nation that others have so many Academyes and wee none at all" (Letters of Eminent Literary Men, ed. Camden Soc., p. 99). This last quotation, as well as the one from Dryden, precedes considerably the earliest one in the New English Dictionary (given under 6) from 1691.

The foundation of the Royal Society in 1662 ought to have put an official end, directly or indirectly, to all these desires, if it had carried out fully what was one of its duties, viz., the inclusion of men from fields of learning other than the natural sciences. But the English conception of "science," the unjustifiable narrowing, so abhorrent to the German mind, of this large and universal conception in English, has proved a curse for centuries—a curse not only for the mother country, but also for America. What we need almost as much as a "British Academy" is the getting rid of the narrow application of the word "science," and I think we *are* gradually getting rid of it.

If, therefore, eminent English scholars are calling now for such a supplement to the Royal Society, for an Academy not to give its official stamp to productions in the field of belles-lettres, poetry, and fiction, but to represent the highest scholarship of the country in the field of the historical sciences itself (a *German* conception), it should be hailed as an excellent movement, to which a wonderful future might be promised—a future which would give the quietus to all the unacademic dilettantism which, in spite of brilliant exceptions, has been the curse of the history of the "historical sciences" in England during the past.—Yours respectfully,

EWALD FLÜGEL.

STANFORD UNIVERSITY, CAL., March 28, 1902.

THE RHYTHM OF EMOTIONAL EXPRESSION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been much interested by the remarks on metrical cadences in Greek prose in your review of Professor Goodwin's edition of Demosthenes on the Crown. It would be instructive to learn whether the rhythms in this and other orations occur in passages of strong emotion, where language naturally runs into verse. If so, it would seem to follow that, as the speeches were composed for delivery, the orators either wrote under the influence of such emotions, or, with exquisite forethought and discernment, adapted their language to the requirements of the case.

A remarkable instance of the tendency of strong feeling to run into verse may be produced from the last quarter where one would have thought of looking for it—the proceedings of the Parliamentary Committee which inquired into the British Museum in 1835 and 1836. One of the principal witnesses is Professor Robert Edward Grant, Professor of Zoölogy and Comparative Anatomy in University College, London, who is described by Darwin as "a man of much enthusiasm beneath his outer crust." Such must have been the case, for, although his evidence is in general sufficiently prosaic, when he approaches the deeply moving subject of the deplorable and disreputable condition of the stuffed animals in the national collection,

> "The wild language of his grief is high,
> Such as in measure were called poetry."

Nay, more than that, for it *is* measure and poetry. With but a few trifling liberties of omission, substitution, and transposition, Professor Grant's lamentation becomes a sustained passage of sonorous blank verse:

We have in the Museum some stuffed skins
That once resembled the giraffe. But now,
In hideous rents that stretch along the carcase,
The straw and beams of wood are visible
Through the wide openings of disfigured hides
Whence characters and forms and hues are gone.
The naked blistered hides have been exposed
To dust and insects many a long year
Without the least protection. They have served
Their time long since, and, zoölogically,
Their characters are now completely gone.
That slender tapering nose that once was straight
Is twisted to the left. The soft smooth skin
That once with beauty spots was coverèd,
Melting into a light and pleasing ground,
Is now hard, naked, tanned, and uniform.
The cords by which the skin was stretched have torn
That skin by their contraction into rents.
Those slender limbs, in their proportiöns
As in their movements graceful once, are now
But as distorted pillars, stretched asunder
Like pyramids to prop the rotten fabric.

After which Professor Grant relapses into prose, nor does the sacred fire descend upon him again.

I am not aware whether Professor Blass has made any reference to the 'Lives of the Sophists,' by Philostratus, where several passages may be found throwing light on the employment of rhythm by Greek orators—of a much later date, certainly, but still, in all probability, following traditional rules. Phœnix Thessalus, for instance, is censured for not being sufficiently rhythmical; and Apollonius Atheniensis is taxed with having fallen into downright poetry, like Professor Grant. It is added, however, that he is not always open to this imputation, and a passage from him is quoted in proof which probably shows to what extent rhythmical diction was thought permissible by a Greek of taste in the time of Philostratus.

I am, dear sir, very truly yours,

R. GARNETT.

HAMPSTEAD, LONDON, March 27, 1902.

ANOTHER FIRST-RATE GERMAN THEATRE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation* of March 27 contains an article on Ludwig Fulda, by Edward Stockton Meyer, in which the statement occurs that the Irving Place Theatre, New York, is "the one theatre with a real literary and artistic standard in this country." I beg leave to call the writer's attention to the Pabst Theatre of Milwaukee. Mr. Meyer may loathe, perhaps, to associate the name of this theatre with art and artists, but Leon Wachsner of the Pabst Theatre keeps an able corps of European artists busy producing such plays as Hauptmann's "Versunkene Glocke," Fulda's "Talisman," Tolstoi's "Die Macht der Finsternis," and a score of others of equal real literary value. If the ensemble of a theatre and the literary productions staged are a measure, then the artistic standard of the "Pabst" is fully equal, if not superior, to Conried's Irving Place Theatre.

Very respectfully, PAUL GERISCH.

NAT. GER. AM. TEACHERS' SEMINARY, MILWAUKEE, April 3, 1902.

A STRIKING LIKENESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Authors occasionally fall into inexplicable similarities of ideas and expressions. Notice the following:

From 'The City of Washington,' by John Addison Porter (Johns Hopkins University Studies, page 14. Published in 1885).	From 'Washington: The Capital City,' by Rufus Rockwell Wilson (Lippincott, pages 32-33. Published in 1901.)
After the first influx of speculators—among whom none bought more largely or lost more heavily than Robert Morris — the "Superintendent of finance" and friend of the government during the dark days of 1781—the sale of real estate languished. Foreigners seemed to have more confidence than natives in the success of the experiment. Engraved plans of the city had been well distributed abroad; Congress passed a law allowing aliens to hold land in the city; and for a time lots brought absurdly high prices in London. But after 1794 the home trade ceased almost entirely. There were some legal difficulties in transferring real estate. One of the main reasons, however, why the city did not grow faster, was that Congress could not remove thither for a number of years.	After the first influx of speculators—among whom none bought more largely and lost more heavily than Robert Morris, the "superintendent of finance" and friend of the government in the dark days of 1781—the sale of real estate languished. Foreigners had more confidence than natives in the success of the experiment. Engraved plans of the city were widely distributed abroad; Congress passed a law allowing aliens to hold land in the city; and for a time lots brought absurdly high prices in London. The home trade, however, ceased almost entirely after 1794, while many of the earlier contracts for lots were repudiated by buyers unable to fulfil their agreements or who had taken alarm from the hurtful rumor, industriously spread, that Congress would never remove to the Potomac, but would remain in Philadelphia.

Q. E. D.

April 3, 1902.

Notes.

Augustus De Morgan's paper 'On the Difficulty of Correct Description of Books,' contributed in 1853 to the *Companion to the Almanac*, has never since been republished. The Bibliographical Society of Chicago now contemplates a reprint of it, "(possibly the first of a series of reprints and translations)," in an edition of 300 copies, for which they invite subscriptions at a dollar each. The work will be elegantly produced by the Blue Sky Press of Chicago. The treasurer of the society, Carl B. Roden, should be addressed at the Chicago Public Library.

'True Tales of Birds and Beasts,' edited by President Jordan of Stanford University, and illustrated by Miss Mary Weldman, is in the press of D. C. Heath & Co.

Charles E. Goodspeed, Boston, has nearly ready 'Iolaüs: An Anthology of Friendship,' by Edward Carpenter.

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'Five Great Painters of the Victorian Era' (Leighton, Millais, Burne-Jones, Watts, and Holman Hunt) is the subject of a work by Sir Wyke Bayliss, President of the Royal Society, illustrated with twenty-two characteristic examples, which will be issued in this country by James Pott & Co.

'The West Indies and the Empire,' by H. de R. Walker, and 'The Domain of Art,' by Sir W. Martin Conway, are to be marketed here by E. P. Dutton & Co.

Two additional books on Macmillan Co.'s list are Sir John Lubbock's 'Scenery of England' and 'The Lower South in American History,' by William Garrott Brown.

'Roman Law and History in the New Testament,' by the Rev. Septimus Buss (Rivingtons), is a book of excellent intentions but poor workmanship. Something of the kind is much needed to elucidate the legal and historical points which are so plentiful in the New Testament. That this book, however, does not supply the need, may at once be seen from the fact that the ambiguous Greek term which we translate "testament," as it occurs in the difficult passage of Heb. ix., 15-17, and elsewhere, is not explained at all. Nor is anything said about the Roman will or the Roman system of inheritance, as treated by St. Paul; and his allusions to the Roman law of adoption are most inadequately dealt with. A certain number of useful facts respecting Roman taxation, army organization, judicial procedure, provincial administration, and the like, have indeed been collected, but the author's information is antiquated, and the works on which he relies are seldom referred to. He appears to think that Ewald, Zumpt, and Strauss are sufficiently modern, and discusses difficult questions of historical criticism, such as that of "Cyrenius and the Taxing," too often without regard to the most recent scholarship. Sometimes he is painfully picturesque, after the fashion of Dean Farrar and General Lew Wallace; and sometimes we find him deficient in the sense of humor no less than in learning, as when he accounts for the varied epithets "purple" and "scarlet" applied to the robe of Christ, by stating that the ancients were "not so careful in the discrimination of colors as we are, they having been partially color-blind" (p. 233). We have seldom read a more disappointing book.

'St. Paul and the Roman Law,' by Dr. W. E. Ball (Edinburgh: Clark; New York: Scribners), is a recent publication in the same field, far better written than that of Mr. Buss, yet by no means worthy of its interesting subject. The first three chapters, expanded from the *Contemporary Review* of August, 1891, are the only ones described in the title. The nine remaining chapters treat of Roman Law in the early theologians, of the much vexed "Logos" controversy, and of the New Testament quotation of canonical and uncanonical scripture. Each essay makes excellent reading, but the topics handled are so many and so large, in proportion to the size of the volume, that their treatment is necessarily superficial. Moreover, it is nowadays scarcely possible to regard any book as a solid or even serious contribution to learning when its author sees fit to eschew footnotes and to give no index. These omissions are probably due to the fact that Dr. Ball intended merely to write readable and suggestive articles. Viewing these essays in that light, we may say that the work has been well done. The common defect of such writings is that the reader is seldom warned of there being "another side," and this defect is particularly noticeable in the essays on the "Logos" and Philo-Judæus.

Seven years ago we referred with unqualified praise to a 'Text-Book of Anatomy and Physiology for Nurses,' by Diana Clifford Kimber (Macmillan). After numerous reprints, a revised edition has just appeared. The chief change is a practically new chapter upon the nervous system, credited to Dr. P. M. Dawson of Johns Hopkins. Metric equivalents are now entered wherever English measures are used, and in a number of illustrations the arteries, which formerly were plain, are colored. A curious error of the pen has been retained on p. xvi., where "contents" stands for "branches" of the aorta. We reiterate our former comment, that to limit the use of this admirable book to nurses would be to neglect other deserving students, especially those in high-grade schools and colleges for young women, where it might be studied to great advantage.

Sir Henry Thompson's widely known 'Diet in Relation to Age and Activity' (F. Warne & Co.) reappears in a revised and enlarged edition, well deserving its established popularity. The burden of his essay is that, with advancing years and diminished strength and exertion, the powers of assimilation and elimination are lessened, and the character and amount of food should be correspondingly reduced. While some of the advice bears particularly upon English habits and the English climate, the general instructions for attaining comfortable longevity are adapted to all intelligent people, and they are the more acceptable from their felicitous style.

Dr. C. G. Kerley makes, in 'Short Talks with Young Mothers' (Putnams), another contribution to the rapidly increasing library of popular information upon the care of children. If "to" replaced "with," the title would better show that these familiar, easily apprehended, and judicious observations are monologues.

'The Baby,' by Marianna Wheeler (Harpers), a little volume upon care and training, is plain and sensible in the last degree. If the chapter on measles and scarlet fever alone were absorbed by parents, the saving of life should be great and the limitation of sickness greater.

A popular summary in 170 pages of what is thought to be known about the planet Mars at the present day ('Mars: Eine Welt in Kampf ums Dasein'), by Otto Dross, has recently been issued by Hartleben (Vienna). The work is beautifully printed, though but charily illustrated, chiefly from the published sketches of Schiaparelli and Brenner. The earlier observations of Kaiser, Dawes, Green, and others are not neglected, nor the bearing of them on the modern researches which were so admirably summarized and collected by Flammarion ten years ago. The strange canal system, of which Dawes may be said to have been the real discoverer, not Schiaparelli, occupies nearly a third of the entire work; but the author does not advance any theory accounting for either the canals themselves or their very remarkable gemination in a fashion more satisfactory than that of his predecessors. Herr Dross concludes with a few brief sketches of the lives of very eminent astronomers—Copernicus, Galileo, Kepler, Tycho, Newton, and W. Herschel; but on the whole it cannot be said that he adds more than a mite to our knowledge of an absorbingly interesting and baffling problem.

In a volume of clear, if not always tasteful, typography have been gathered 'The Proceedings of the Webster Centennial of Dartmouth College,' issued by the College. The date commemorated was that of Webster's graduation, September 24, 25, 1801, and a good deal of the matter naturally relates to the future statesman's college career. This has been looked after with some research and a few gleanings by Prof. Charles F. Richardson. The formal oration was by Representative McCall of Massachusetts, and here, as in most of the speeches, Webster's 7th of March defection was smoothed down into a virtue. Senator Hoar easily surpassed this speaker by his recipe for annulling the just censure of contemporaries: "Each man has given to him his own light. He is a laggard or a dastard if he do not follow it. But he is nowhere commanded to sit in judgment on the motives of other men." Amid these apologies for Webster's support of the Fugitive Slave Law, the College honored with the degree of LL.D. *in absentia* Booker Washington, who, if born earlier, might, as a slave *in absentia*, have heard Webster invoke Northern man-hunters to perform a "disagreeable duty" "with alacrity," and who may now read the letter of Dartmouth's former President, Dr. Nathan Lord, asking Calhoun for references to authorities in the "argument for the Divine Right of Slavery in general or Negro Slavery in particular."

The Proceedings of the Bostonian Society contains, besides President Guild's reminiscent address, extracts from the diary of Dr. William Read for April, 1851. The principal events noted are the great storm in which Minot's Ledge lighthouse was destroyed; Daniel Webster's speech in Bowdoin Square, when the Mayor and Aldermen refused him the use of Faneuil Hall; and the election of Charles Sumner to the Senate. Dr. Read's reference to this result of a coalition deemed unholy shows the bitter feeling at that day on the part of the Whigs: "This election has been accomplished by one of the most barefaced and unblushing sacrifices of principle ever made by any party. . . . If he [Sumner] has any sensibility, and is a man of honorable feelings, the price at which he has purchased his seat must sting him to the quick." Dr. Read closes by saying that the "detected fraudulent voting and bribery . . . will render this transaction to the end of time a standing disgrace to the Legislature of Massachusetts, and a monument of political infamy too great to be soon forgotten." Nevertheless, the diarist lived to become an enthusiastic supporter of Mr. Sumner. The frontispiece is a reproduction of an original hand-colored engraving of Paul Revere's "View of Part of the Town of Boston in New England, and British Ships of War Landing their Troops, 1768."

Many lists of children's books have been prepared for school use, but none on a scale to compare with that just issued by the Buffalo Public Library. 'Class-Room Libraries for Schools' is the title of the pamphlet, of which the scheme is this: The nine grades of the grammar schools have each a "library" marked out

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for them, "suggestively and approximately"; to these lists succeed an author-title index, and a subject-index (the kernel of the catalogue), and finally a list of books desirable for reference libraries in connection with school work. The execution of this scheme is to our mind wholly praiseworthy, and we cannot think that any serious charges of omission will be brought against it. Stress is laid in the subject-index on American history and historical personages, and to the latter a pithy quotation in prose or verse is allotted by way of introduction. We do not doubt that this aid to juvenile reading and study will be welcomed in many a home as well as in schools, to satisfy the cravings of young minds for specific guidance. Whether parents, too, like teachers and librarians, may procure it for thirty cents (the cost price), we do not know. It will, at all events, serve to knit the alliance between the home, the school, and the public library.

The agricultural possibilities of Alaska are described by Prof. C. C. Georgeson of Sitka in the *National Geographic Magazine* for March as of a high order. In the interior, hardy vegetables and grain can be grown, and much land is good for stock-raising. He believes its conditions to be more favorable from an agricultural standpoint than those of Finland, which, in the same latitude, has a population of two and a half millions, mostly cultivators of the soil. The chief hindrance to the development of these resources is that settlers cannot acquire land titles without prohibitive expense. A series of pictures, with explanatory notes, show in a graphic way how Havana has become a city with a better bill of health than Washington. "By the end of the second year of American occupation, every house in the city had been cleaned from top to bottom at least once," the floors with electrozone and the walls with a solution of bichloride of mercury. By this means and by the cleansing of the sewers, "which had not been touched since they were built, long ago," the deaths from yellow fever, which in 1896 were 1,262, in 1901 were only 5. We will mention further a detailed description of the rare Sarichef's Atlas of the far northern Pacific and the adjacent coasts published by the Russian Hydrographic Office in 1826, and an account, by Dr. L. A. Bauer, of the objects and work of the magnetic survey of the United States.

The most important article in the *Geographical Journal* for March is a study of the Isthmian Canal from a commercial point of view by Col. G. E. Church. He begins by briefly sketching the various South American transcontinental routes, as to which he is probably the greatest living authority, as well as the history of the Spanish explorations in search of the strait which was supposed to exist between the two oceans. After a technical description of the rival canal projects, he gives tables of distances from and to prominent ports in both hemispheres, and a careful summary of the South American trade upon which a canal must depend. Attention is, however, directed to the extremely problematical character of statistics, especially those of tonnage: "A single 2,000-ton vessel, running from Panama to Valparaiso, and, during every trip, *entered* and *cleared* perhaps at a dozen ports, picking up or discharging a few tons of freight at each, may add yearly 200,000 to 300,000 tons of *entrances* and *clearances* to the commercial record." Col. Church's conclusion is, that the canal is not a commercial necessity; that its traffic will be far less than is anticipated, and that, if constructed, it will prove for many years a heavy burden to this country. A narrative of a journey through southwestern China impresses one with the great industrial future of the country, especially when railway communication with Burma is established. Cheng-tu Plain is described as probably the most intensively cultivated portion of the earth's surface. It is about 70 miles by 40 in area, and supports a population of four millions. "It often grows seven crops a year, and it pays to borrow money at 30 per cent. to cultivate it." The scheme of artificial irrigation, to which this marvellous fertility is due, was devised two thousand years ago by an engineer who has been assigned by his grateful countrymen a place in the Chinese Pantheon, a magnificent temple having been erected in his honor. Mr. Stanley Gardiner gives the results of his explorations in the Maldives to determine the interdependence of the physical and biological factors in the formation of atolls. The indications are that their base is of volcanic origin, and it is hoped that the investigations of Mr. Alexander Agassiz, who has been at work in the same group of islands, will settle the vexed question.

The Royal Medallists for this year of the Royal Geographical Society are Sir F. D. Lugard, High Commissioner of Northern Nigeria, and Major Molesworth Sykes, late British Consul in southeastern Persia. This honor is, of course, due to their notable contributions to the accurate geographical knowledge of the countries in which they have been stationed, but they both have done far more than this. They have studied sympathetically the native life, customs, beliefs, points of view, and laws in the interest of the native himself. The conviction of the urgent necessity of this knowledge for the enlightened government of the inferior races has led two British scientific societies to petition the Government to order a full and systematic inquiry into the laws and customs of the natives of South Africa. Such inquiry, they affirm, must precede any comprehensive attempt to solve by legislation that most difficult problem, the relations of the white population to the native and of the natives to one another.

The English are having considerable trouble in circulating on the Continent the various translations of Dr. Conan Doyle's 'Cause and Conduct of the War in South Africa,' a semi-official apology. Translations into eight European languages have been made, but it has been impossible to secure publishers in Germany and Holland. Accordingly, it has been found necessary to print these two translations in England, and a German edition of 5,000 copies has already been issued in London. The French and Italian editions have appeared in those countries, and the Scandinavian version is about ready, while the Russian, Spanish, Hungarian, and Portuguese editions are in rapid preparation. The list of subscribers for the spread of this book is headed by Lord Rosebery, with a donation of fifty pounds.

The leading papers of Italy are engaged in a rather bitter controversy over the recent reorganization of the National Museum of Naples, which is of more than local interest, as it involves the entire scientific management of this famous depository of the finds of Herculaneum and Pompeii. Nearly a year ago, Prof. Ettore Pais, who holds the chair of history in the University of Naples, was appointed to the directorship by the Cultus Minister in the place of Petra, who had been regarded as "an offensive partisan" by those in power. Pais went to work radically to rearrange the whole museum, expending 50,000 lire, it is alleged, for useless buildings, and discharging tried helpers in the scientific department, until the press resounded with denunciations, the chief critic being Professor Ceci of the University of Rome, seconded, in a measure, by the Archæological Committee of the Museum in Naples itself. The new Cultus Minister, Nasi, has now ordered an investigation of the charges of incompetency against the new director. Special personal interest attaches to this controversy, as it was Ceci who made the sharp attack on the foreign archæologists in 1900, and Pais is Chairman of the Committee of Arrangements for the International Congress of Historians to assemble in the near future in Rome.

For twenty-five years the indefatigable Catholic priest, Father Delattre, has been engaged in archæological researches on the site of ancient Carthage, and now reports what he declares the best find made during this period. It is a white marble sarcophagus, 2.09 metres in length, partially covered with designs, that on the lid being a relief portrait of a woman, of rare artistic beauty. The sarcophagus belongs to the Punic period, and is the work of a Greek artist. It is now regarded as the *pièce de résistance* in the well-stocked museum of the Pères Blancs in Carthage. The find was made in the necropolis near Ste. Monique.

The Herbarium and Botanical Institute of Bucharest has begun the publication of a quarterly *Buletinul*, edited by Michel C. Vladesco, professor of botany in the University. The initial number contains five articles in parallel columns of Rumanian and French or Rumanian and German. They comprise contributions on the bryological flora and the vascular cryptogams of Rumania, and on the flora of Ceahlu, together with the first instalment of a Rumanian botanical vocabulary.

The *Verhandlungen* and the *Zeitschrift* of the Geographical Society of Berlin have been united in one publication, entitled *Zeitschrift der Gesellschaft für Erdkunde*, of which ten numbers will appear during the year. The first number contains papers on the Somali coast, on the physical geography of Honduras, and on the German North Polar expedition.

Beginning with 1902, the *Mémoires* of the Society of Physics and Natural History of Geneva will not appear, as heretofore, in semi-annual parts, but will be made up of several numbers published at irregular intervals.

The Astronomical Observatory of La Plata has begun the publication of *Anales* of the meteorological bureau of the province of Buenos Aires. The first volume is devoted to a record of meteorological observations made at La Plata between 1886 and 1894, and at outlying stations during 1894.

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—Concerning the subject of historical series it is not necessary that we should speak, save to observe that they must be profitable, or else there would not be so many of them. One other remark may also be offered, namely, that two distinct types of composition are mainly represented. The first may be termed a piece of "vulgarization," the second is the independent monograph. We have before us three volumes which represent two well-known and bulky series—the "Story of the Nations" and the "Heroes of the Nations" (Putnams). They are 'Mediæval Rome,' by Mr. William Miller, 'Wales,' by Mr. Owen M. Edwards, and 'Henry V.,' by Mr. C. L. Kingsford. Though they all bear strong marks of resemblance in point of length and illustration, they differ widely in other respects. For example, Mr. Miller's 'Mediæval Rome' is an attempt, in the main, to abridge a celebrated work of German erudition, while Mr. Kingsford's 'Henry V.' is a careful study which has cost the author a good deal of research. To say that this book on 'Mediæval Rome' is frankly derived from Gregorovius, with embellishments drawn from Reumont, is not necessarily to condemn it. In such a case abridgment is quite justified if it is well done. But in this instance we cannot refrain from saying that the title which has been chosen is most misleading. The period covered is 1073-1600, and as half of the text is occupied with a narrative of events which lie between Nicholas V. and Clement VIII., we must reconstruct our historical terminology in order to give the title an adequate meaning. That is to say, Mr. Miller writes the history of Rome during the Renaissance quite as much as during the Middle Ages, and in this way he fails to bring out the characteristic features of the mediæval period. We may even term this an organic weakness in the structure of the volume, because from it there results a hasty and inadequate treatment of constitutional history and social life during the era which purports to have been chosen. Though the dates 1073-1600 are given on the title-page, the general reader will be captured by the words 'Mediæval Rome.'

—On the contrary, Mr. Edwards's 'Wales' deserves to be specially praised for the clearness of its arrangement and for the skill with which it distinguishes between the salient features of Welsh history. It comprehends everything from the Roman occupation of Britain to the present day, and, although fulness of detail is rendered impossible by the rigid requirements of the series, one sees that the author has a firm grasp of his subject. The main points are clearly articulated, and all the topics chosen are treated in strict subordination to the general theme. Mr. Edwards's principal task is to distinguish between that earlier period in Welsh history when national life was dominated by the power of the princes, and that later period in which the peasants come to the fore in both power and social influence. "The princes were crushed by the Plantagenets, their descendants dispossessed by the Lancastrians or Anglicized by the Tudors. On their disappearance, a lower subject class became prominent, inheriting their changing traditions and feebly imitating their decaying literature." The earlier age is that of the Mabinogion and the odes of Davydd ap Gwilym; the latter is that of the evangelical movement and of growing liberalism. It will be seen that these eras differ greatly in length, and that the first is not only longer but much more intricate. The decline of local independence produced a degree of social uniformity which was wholly lacking in the Middle Ages. Ever since the Tudor period, prosperity has tended to increase at the expense of picturesqueness in the land of the Cymry. The burning question of Disestablishment finds no place in Mr. Edwards's pages—probably on account of its controversial character, since space is found for some notice of the political struggle between landlord and farmer in 1867, and of the industrial revolution which has been caused by the opening up of Welsh mines. Mr. Edwards concludes in these interesting words: "The first period of Welsh history ends with the poet's lament for its fallen princes; the second ends with the poet's vision of a future of more self-conscious life and of greater service. The motto of Wales is to be that of its Prince—'Ich dien.'"

—Mr. Kingsford's 'Henry V.,' in the "Heroes of the Nations" series, is founded upon an article which the author contributed to the 'Dictionary of National Biography'; but this study has since been greatly extended, and the present book also embodies the results of further research. "If I cannot claim," says Mr. Kingsford, "to have exhausted all sources of information, I have nevertheless sought throughout to base my narrative on chronicles and documents of contemporary, or nearly contemporary, date." It is inevitable that military operations should occupy a large share of the space, but they are not permitted to overshadow altogether the civil acts of the reign. Thus, Mr. Kingsford devotes one chapter, entitled "The Unity of the Church," to the Council of Constance, and another, entitled "The State of England," to the social condition of the realm. In all essential respects the book is an excellent one. Our only adverse criticism is that delineation of the "hero's" character is inclined to yield place for the political history of the time. We must state, however, that the balance is almost restored by the *Conclusion*, which consists purely of criticism. In it are discussed, among other things, the questions of Henry's cruelty and of his real attitude towards the French war. The persecution of the Lollards and the execution of prisoners are accounted for by sincere conviction in the first case and a sense of justice in the second. Henry was another Frederick Barbarossa, who had a reverence for principle, but who looked upon the maintenance of prerogative as a capital duty. With regard to the conquest of France, Mr. Kingsford remembers the King's death-bed declaration, "that he had entered upon the war from a desire to establish lasting peace," rather than from the mere love of territorial acquisition. The statement derives a good deal of color from the undoubted idealism of Henry's character. Had he lived, Agincourt might have been made the first step towards a general crusade against the Ottoman.

—Many American teachers of Greek have known for some time of the new plan of Greek instruction in the German gymnasia proposed by the noted philologian, Professor Ulrich von Wilamowitz-Moellendorff at a conference held in Berlin year before last and published in 'Verhandlungen über Fragen des höheren Unterrichtes, 1900.' This plan involved the preparation of a new Greek chrestomathy, of which Professor von Wilamowitz-Moellendorff, as the representative of a commission appointed by the Minister of Education, had the making. This book, which has been awaited with much interest, is at last published, under the title 'Griechisches Lesebuch' (Berlin: Weidmann). With characteristic German regard for the weight which the schoolboy is to carry in his satchel, the book is divided into four volumes, two of text and two of notes. The selections are mainly prose; for the editor takes it for granted that the student has already read the poetry of Homer and the tragedians. Familiarity with the New Testament and some of the works of Plato is also presupposed, while the writings of Herodotus are entirely omitted, for the reason that they should be read in large quantity and rapidly. The preface states that the book is designed for students who have learned enough Greek to be able to read a book for what there is in it. In the belief that one learns Greek only for the sake of reading it, and reads it only to understand a world period during which Greek was the dominant language of the spirit, the editor includes in his reader extracts from the works of every century from the sixth before Christ to the fourth of our era, without regard to the dialect or nationality of the author. An examination of the contents will show the wide range of the selections. They are grouped under ten headings: Fables and Stories, History, Politics, Geography and Astronomy, Mathematics and Mechanics, Medicine, Philosophy, Early Christian, Æsthetics and Grammar, and Documents and Letters—which last is a collection of eighteen pieces of various dates. The variety in dialect and origin is apparent from a list of the authors excerpted—too long to reproduce here, but a formidable one for the ordinary teacher of Greek. The introductions, however, with which each extract is furnished, and the full notes, which aim to make good the deficiencies of the grammars and dictionaries in common use, will help him out of many difficulties. He will find the book useful for a survey of Greek literature and culture, and well adapted to the correlation of Greek to other branches of study. Whatever be the final decision as to its practical use with classes, either as a whole or in parts, it is of interest to Americans as a contribution to the classical question, and a worthy addition to the library of the teacher, both for its selection of texts and for the preface and concluding remarks of its gifted editor.

—Dr. Baelz, a German physician in Tokio, who has been repeatedly decorated by the Mikado, upon whom he has attended, seems to have made a discovery of great interest in anthropology (twenty years ago, but recently reinforced and ably defended in a controversy carried on in the Japan *Times*). Others before him had noticed the blue spots which Japanese babies have on the lower part of their spine and elsewhere, and which usually disappear before the age of six, but no one before him, so far as is known, had interpreted and set forth this phenomenon as a peculiarity of the yellow race in contradistinction to the white race.

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In Korean and Chinese children, in Malays and Eskimos, these blue spots have also been found. They are not visible on European children, but the pigment cells have been found microscopically. Dr. Baelz says: "The white, the yellow, and the black man have all the same kind of coloring matter in their skins; the difference is only a matter of degree. In the white the pigment does not show, or hardly shows at all, to the naked eye; in the yellow it is a little more abundant, hence the yellow tint; and the more abundant it is, the darker the skin will look until we reach the negro." In Euro-Japanese children, if the offspring resembles the fair-haired, blue-eyed parent, it has no spots at all; if the influence of the Japanese and the foreign parent is about equal, the spots are there though more or less indistinct. But if the Japanese characteristics prevail generally, the spots are almost as well marked as in a Japanese baby. While apes have the same blue spots, and certain monkeys blue callosities on the buttocks, Japanese children have sometimes one-half of their bodies covered with them. Dr. Bälz believes that the blue spots form a most important racial characteristic, and will not acknowledge that the configuration of eyelids or of the earlobes is of anything like equal value. Dr. Baelz wrote on "The Physical Qualities of the Japanese," in Tokio, in 1882-3, since which time little seems to have been done seriously in the field of Japanese anthropology.

ITALY'S "DECADENCE" AND ITALY'S MISSION.

La Missione dell' Italia. Per G. Novicow. Traduzione di A. Tassone. Milan: Fratelli Treves. 1901.

In an age of commercial monopolies and great combinations of capital and labor, when attempts are being made to "syndicate" even artistic and literary output, it is not strange that the idea should gain currency of a racial monopoly of the forces which stand for human progress. Such phrases as "Anglo-Saxon superiority" and "Latin decadence" have become the stock in trade not only of many popular speakers and writers, but of men whose scholarship warranted the expectation of careful consideration. Anthropological data in the hands of pseudo-scientists has resulted in flooding the scientific market with attractive but overbold generalizations; the criminal anthropologists, especially, have raised to the dignity of a science the stray bits of observations gathered by a few enthusiasts during less than a decade. All this is very ably combated in a recent book by a distinguished sociologist, which bears the unmistakable marks of wide scholarship and calm and dispassionate treatment. Fortunately for the cause he defends, the author is not a "Latin" but a Russian, G. Novikoff.

He justly selects the Italian nation for his counter-argument, for no nation except Greece has exercised a greater influence upon civilization than Italy; no European nation has an older history, and, hence, no other "Latin" nation ought to be nearer "racial death" than this nation of past glories. At the outset the question naturally suggests itself, "Is there, in fact, such a thing as a 'Latin' race?" Novikoff's answer to this query takes up a large part of his book and is worthy of careful consideration. "The theory of races," he says, "is a colossal aberration due to a singular confusion between morphological and psychological phenomena." What constitutes a "race"? The only possible answer, says the author, is "a combination of morphologic or physiologic marks." If morphologic, what is the concrete, external fact which we may use as a basis for the classification of races? In nature, all living beings present an uninterrupted chain composed of elements in every conceivable state of transition. It is only the human mind that divides them up into grades and sets; in other words, it is a purely subjective division. The best proof of this is that it changes from age to age. We used to classify races according to the color of the skin; then we divided mankind according to the growth of their hair; in our day the favorite division is that based on cranial formation. But this is probably the most arbitrary method, and one bound to be supplanted by a better one. It is arbitrary because it starts out with a conventional cephalic index, a fragile foundation upon which to base some of the "terrible sentences" pronounced by certain of the strenuous anthropologists of the day. They tell the French and Italians, for instance: "Ye are brachicephalous; hence, an inferior race, doomed to decay"; and they as glibly tell the "Anglo-Saxons" that, being "dolicocephalous," they are a superior race and hold the future in their grasp. What proof is there of the inferiority of brachicephalic people? Is this not, asks Novikoff, "one of the most colossal mystifications ever produced?" As a matter of fact, observation shows that there is no "racial" cranial difference; that from remote ages very varied cranial forms have coexisted in European countries. At all events, if race is the one factor in social progress, two phenomena would of necessity have resulted—the "superior" races of to-day would have been such in every age, and the representatives of such "superior" races should all have reached the same level of civilization. The history of mankind, however, is to the contrary.

Now, races (and their subdivision into species) are either changeable or not. If they are immutable, how could the dolicocephalous "Anglo-Saxon" ever reach an initial civilized condition? When the brachicephalous Egyptians were at the height of their glory, the blond Saxons were mere savages. Inasmuch as the Anglo-Saxon is now civilized, the Anglo-Saxon "race" must be changeable. Biologic laws must apply, if at all, not to a few, but to all human beings, and hence the "negro race," for example, is as much susceptible of development and perfection as the "white." If it is claimed that the "negro race" is not so susceptible, then races are immutable. But if they are unchangeable, how can they or any of them ever decay? The fact is, that all races and all species are variable; that all progress and all retrogression in nations depend on innumerable causes, geographic, biologic, psychologic, and social. Nations under fortunate contingencies have progressed rapidly; those not so favored have progressed slowly. There are no *chosen* races and no *doomed* ones. "The Italians in other days have led Europe. It is not the shape of their skulls nor their being labelled 'Latin' . . . that will prevent their again reaching that place of eminence occupied by them in the past."

The poverty of Italy is cited by the pessimist as a sign of the lack of energy and progressiveness in Italians, and consequently of decay. But there are young "non-Latin" nations (Russia, for instance) which are poorer than Italy. If it is contended that her decadence is shown by the fact that Italy was once the richest country in Europe, it is because the contention overlooks the circumstances of relativity. Italy to-day is poorer than France, but she is wealthier than she was in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, when she was the wealthiest of nations. The Lord of Verona in 1335 had an annual income of 8,400,000 francs, which was more than any sovereign had, except the King of France, but to-day the whole of Italy has an income of 1,726 million francs. So that the facts show not that Italy has become poorer, but that, though she has become richer, France has become even more so. And this brings us to the consideration of another fact: countries which have developed only in recent times, will necessarily show a rapidity of development which old countries cannot possibly show. To regard a condition of growth as a sign of decay is as absurd as to say that a man at thirty is on his decline because his growth is less rapid than it was at ten. When our country is as thickly populated as Italy, our population will not double in fifty years, nor will new cities rise out of nothing in a few days. They will then develop as slowly as Florence or Naples.

Italians seem much less active than Americans, and this is cited as a sign of decay. But Italians work less because they have less to do, having already done so much in the way of adjusting their country to their needs. Thus, the traveller in our Western cities is struck by the number of churches in process of construction. But Italy has already all the churches she needs. Orvieto, with 16,000 souls, has a larger and more beautiful cathedral than Chicago has, with a population 100 times as large. Florence and Venice build fewer houses than Philadelphia or San Francisco, for the simple reason that the latter cities were a wilderness when the former had built their magnificent palaces. And again, when ugly and inartistic churches in our country are torn down to make room for new and better ones, the pessimists claim it is a sign of our progressiveness as a people. But would we tear down a Church of St. Mark if we had one?

Is there aught to prevent "decadent" Italy from winning in the future the position of greatness she held in the past? There is no more geographically favored country in the world. No point in the entire peninsula is more than 200 miles from the sea; this is an immense advantage. Her agricultural resources are well known, and there is nothing to prevent her becoming a great industrial Power like England or the United States. She has no coal, but this will militate only against her metallurgical industries. For other industries, the electricity, or "white coal," which Italy can obtain in superabundance from her myriad mountain streams, is superior to coal in supplying motive power. As to machinery, it is technical perfection and excellence of products which count, and in this respect Italy is already forging ahead. Nor need

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Italy fear for her financial resources; she may, indeed, be proud of the manner with which she has kept her obligations to her creditors. Despite the heavy taxes she has had to impose to meet the tremendous demands made by her youth, as a united nation, in the work of unification and national construction, Italy has never admitted the possibility of bankruptcy; and, unlike Russia, has never paid her national debt in paper.

Novikoff lays special stress upon the intellectual powers of the Italians in comparison with that of the "young Anglo-Saxon" peoples. He sets forth the remarkable paucity of ideas, the great ignorance, of the English bourgeoisie, and the "Gothic" characteristics of many of the modern Germans. Here he draws a striking comparison between Bismarck and Cavour—to the latter's advantage, who, "merely by the stress of intellectual charm, could lead the most opposing and undisciplined parliamentary parties." The great Italian names of the past are cited as proof of her present decadence. But are they not rather an earnest of her future greatness? The foreigner has so much of the past to see in Italy that he has no time to examine what is new, and he draws the conclusion that there is nothing new. During the century just closed, the mind of Italy was absorbed in the work of national reconstruction, which for her meant also the conquest of political liberty. In this work the Italians displayed the genius shown by their fathers in other fields. "Italian unification is one of the most marvellous pages of European history. A king like Victor Emmanuel, a statesman like Cavour, gave Italy the political primacy, as Dante gave her the literary and Michelangelo the artistic leadership."

In conclusion, our author, after showing that no "race" in general, and the Italian nation in particular, is bound by any law to stagnation or decay, that all peoples possess powers of growth and development, sketches rapidly the possibility of what a nation like Italy may in future do for humanity. "Nature and history," he says, "impose upon Italy the duty of intellectual leadership." "Her natural beauties will ever make her the rendezvous of all that is best in the world; with the spread of civilization, men will look to her more and more as the mother of harmonies." All the finest spirits, all the best mentalities will seek her as an intellectual refuge. "She will become the intellectual and moral sanatorium of the world." To Italy, Novikoff looks for the political mission of European federation. She was the first to introduce the plébiscite, the greatest weapon against war. Twice already has she accomplished the unity of the Western peoples—the first time, by the political domination of Rome; the second time, by the spiritual domination of the Popes. If Italy can work out this great destiny of European unity, she will become for the third time the centre of Western civilization. The days of Augustus and Innocent III. would be hers again. "But this third glory would be far more lasting than the others, because it would be based, not upon brute force, . . . but upon respect and justice—that is to say, upon the most solid and unassailable foundation upon which any human institution can be built."

HALF-A-DOZEN NOVELS.

Patricia of the Hills. By Charles Kennett Burrow. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

The Winding Road. By Elizabeth Godfrey. Henry Holt & Company.

The Crimson Wing. By H. C. Chatfield-Taylor. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.

Michael Ross, Minister. By Annie E. Holdsworth. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Alabama Sketches. By Samuel Minturn Peck. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

The Battle-Ground. By Ellen Glasgow. Doubleday, Page & Co.

'Patricia of the Hills' is an engaging little story; Irish, but not wild Irish. We find in it patriotism without unreasonableness; love of the open air and the free hills without exaggeration; romance without overgush; humor and melancholy side by side without morbidness; Irish dialect stopping short of nausea. In short, while many notes of the Celtic temperament are sounded, not one is forced beyond the limits of sympathy; this, too, with the moderation of restraint, and not of hesitancy. The story —of love, mortgage, and election—is slight, but full of sincere feeling. There is absolutely no mention of a purpose, but the book makes closer appeal, even considered as race literature, than many larger works written more directly under the constellation of the Howling Dog.

'The Winding Road' is a winningly fantastic story of a gypsy wanderer, a gypsy fiddle, and a girl who was not a gypsy. We have sung, danced, wandered, and wept with this trio before in story and in opera, but Miss Godfrey has contrived to combine and expand her materials in a fresh and original way, and has made a new and pretty tale. So pretty is it that she could well have afforded to hold her hand in the matter of decoration. She need not have laid on the landscape so thick; she might have limited herself in the matter of headings to one verse at a time rather than processions of verses from Stevenson, Yeats, Bliss Carman, Josephine Daskam, Longfellow, Browning, and Le Gallienne. On the other hand, though borrowing has dulled the edge of her husbandry, it might have been profitable in the case of music, and we should have been spared reading about chords that "emerged in a simple clef" and then made "an excursion into another clef."

'The Crimson Wing' is a story of the Franco-Prussian war of 1870. It gives a good idea of the struggle, of its personages, its diplomacies, its treacheries, heroisms, and imbecilities, and so far is meritorious. The fiction-reading world of to-day is growing used to the dazzling light of distinguished society. But even though we of late have sat down with kings, and hobnobbed with patriarchs of the infant world, we experience a mental jolt at overhearing heart-to-heart talks with Gen. Sheridan and Frederick of Prussia. We tremble lest the next new novel shall deal with Edward the Seventh or Mayor Low. The natural unnaturalnesses of a story of war-times are to be accepted uncomplainingly. Indeed, in 'The Crimson Wing' they are interesting throughout, and are not particularly overstrained, unless it be in the case of what is accomplished by the two young women concerned. With them the improbabilities are impartially divided. The good angel achieves miracles of horsemanship and leadership; the bad angel not only turns Red Cross nurse, which was to be expected, but becomes good angel besides, and makes the hero over to the other lady, though she wants him very much for herself. We must think the whole *Ewig-Weibliche* of the novel a little overdone—a tax on belief, in short, which makes for weakness in the end, however painstakingly elaborated and however amiable its motive.

A celebrated oculist once said of novels printed in very small type, "if publishers had not invented them, oculists would." The type of 'Michael Ross, Minister' is excellent. But there is renewed hope for the oculist in this novel (and in fact, in most novels nowadays), in the treatment accorded in the text to the human eye. It is enough to give the reader sympathetic oculitis to read of eyes that leap and burn and compel and entreat and rebound and glaze; that are cruel and haggard; that have their light quenched with awful horror, and swoon, and are like hands around his heart, clinging desperately. These be but mannerisms, but it is time to look to them. Another sign of the bad times is the impertinent natural history. " 'You will let me stay?' A crow lighted beside the nest," etc., etc. This sort of interpolated bird, beast, and flower is like nothing so much as the columns of the domestic press, "as she is written"—"Home must be hallowed by sacrifice," "The best way to curry eggs is," etc. The affected landscape is painful, too. Of the whiteness after a snowfall we read: "No broken lights of faith and hope mosaiced the church-yard graves." "Furniture of golded brown" takes the fault indoors, but it is a mistaken coddling. The Rev. Michael's conscience and Ruth's affections do almost as much rolling and twisting as the thousand eyes aforesaid. Welcome as terra-firma to the seasick is the firmer handling of some of the other characters. And now, keeping the best for the last, we turn to the excellent side of this novel. Its interest as a story never flags, while its portraits of the queer, the despicable, the kindly in an independent parish on English sea-coast are full of freshness and entertainment. "The more we have, the more we had ought to cling to it," says wily Jacob Yates; "it's only them as has nothing as can afford to give." Worthy Mrs. Nettlefold, the Deacon's wife, should win immortality if only for saying, "Bear your wife's burdens, and so fulfil the law, is a text that comforts me when domestic things are hard for the Deacon." And there is a lovely cat.

Mr. Peck's stories of western Alabama are noticeably bright little sketches. "The Trouble at St. James's" is perhaps the best, being a capital account by the negro sexton of the vicissitudes attending the ministry of the Rev. Mr. Crofton. "Sister Taylor's Registered Letter" is a close second; and "Pap's Mules" an entirely charming story of a boy's rescue of the two most important members of the household from Yankee raiders and mule-thieves. A few of the sketches lean toward farce, and over a few hovers a soft, idyllic aroma suiting the land and the day when Annie sewed in the old summer-house under the myrtles, and Tom read 'Lalla Rookh' aloud to her,

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Miss Glasgow's books improve with each deeper plunge into the past and into the South. Her story of Reconstruction was better than her novel of New York, and best of the three is 'The Battle-Ground,' which shuns even small towns, and tells of Virginia before and during the civil war. Two or three of the portraits are masterly. Of these are the heroine, Betty, and the two old men, the Governor and the Major. Secondary, but as lifelike, are the studies of the mountaineer known as "Pinetop"; the faithful old slave, "Big Abel," who follows his young master to the war; Aunt Molly, reading 'The Mysteries of Udolpho' in bed, a tall silver candlestick standing on her breast; Aunt Lydia tending her old garden, and liking apple-toddy, though she regarded the taste "as an indelicate one, and would as soon have admitted, before gentlemen, a liking for cabbage." As to the young hero, his attractiveness is more insisted on than patent. However, if not a very positive character himself, he is the cause of much excellent characterization in others, being the chief object of much and varied loving, petting, and cursing. The South—say rather the Virginia—of a generation ago has found a most sympathetic reproduction, with its neighborhood amenities and the manners of an age of chivalry. The women (always excepting the spicy Betty) are an irresistible compound of the seraphic and the silly; the men roystering, tender-hearted, elegant, readers of Horace and Addison, but none the wider for it; vehement declaimers upon the rights and duties of gentlemen. What is a gentleman, by the way? As many different things, seemingly, as there are communities and professions. Major Lightfoot's creed declared, "There's no man alive that shall question the divine right of slavery in my presence; but—but it is an institution for gentlemen, and you, sir [to a nobody white who had struck his slave] are a damned scoundrel." When he finds his grandson, as he thinks, fickle, he roars, "Would you trifle with a lady from your own State, sir?" And his reproach to the hotheaded youth for duelling in a chivalrous cause is that he has "tried to murder a Virginia gentleman for the sake of a barroom hussy." The old Major, indeed, is a very fine example of a local product. With the Governor, the strictly Virginian idea is enlarged to a wider patriotism. Incurring his friend the Major's unrestrained wrath, the Governor sadly hopes to save the Union, not as one who loves his State less, but his country more.

Coming to the second generation, we find Dan Montjoy, in the stress of camp life, forming a warm friendship with a despised mountaineer as they fight side by side, the young patrician for the right to hold slaves, the other to "keep Virginia." The war half of the book is vivid; moving, as always, is the story of the beardless boys who made up the army of the South, especially the followers of Gen. Lee, their justly adored "Marse Robert." The writer writes whereof she evidently knows. But intimacy has not dulled her perception. She takes heed of tragic and humorous as one who writes from without, though she has seen from within. We must except the natural scenery, which looms too large. At times, like that in "Parsifal," it sustains the entire action while the figures are stationary.

Miscellanies (Second Series). By Austin Dobson. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1901.

There is, in the circle of distinctive and admirable literary qualities, one grace too rarely seen—perhaps, nowadays, too rarely sought. This, which, for want of any generally accepted tag, may be defined as virile delicacy, is the peculiar and conspicuous charm of Mr. Austin Dobson's slight, often occasional, but always delightful, miscellanies in prose and verse. The present eight papers, chiefly upon themes drawn from the life and letters of eighteenth-century England, are marked by the intimacy which springs not from the violent exenteration of a subject, but from wide and exact knowledge, long cogitated and pleasantly remembered; all are composed in a graceful style of Addisonian clarity and ease, as devoid of colloquialism as of pedantry. As for the verse, one would like to round upon Mr. Dobson with an appreciative *tu quoque* when he writes of another,

> "Pope taught him rhythm. Prior ease,
> Praed buoyancy and banter." . . .

The essays are all so pleasant and so discursive that detailed criticism is out of the question, and selection among them a disagreeable renunciation. Even the footnotes are filled with "lures of laughter." Thus, it is hard to be too grateful for a note appended to the paper on Fielding's 'Convent-Garden Journal,' which recalls the friend of Joseph Cradock's who returned to him his copy of 'Hermes'—that inchoate, tremendous philological work by James Harris of Salisbury—with a mild deprecation of "these imitations of Tristram Shandy."

Perhaps the essays which will be generally read with most pleasure are those "On Certain Quotations in Walton's Angler," and on "Vader Cats." At this time of year, when to many the subsidence of snow water is the most momentous of matters, Walton is an author often taken from the shelf. Mr. Dobson has been at the pains of running down some of Piscator's many quotations, and has been delighted to find that all are singularly inaccurate, amplified and amended quite at the sweet will of gentle Izaak. But Mr. Dobson does not promulgate his discovery in the temper of the "severe, sowre complexion'd" critic; rather he uses it to exalt the more the real Walton—"the Walton of the cheerful spirit and the clean morality, of the frank old words that smell of the soil and the fresh-turned furrows."

There may be some who do not know that "Vader Cats" is none other than Jacob Cats, who may be described as the typical Tupper of Holland, whose poetry, as Mr. Dobson says engagingly, is not "a trickling rill from Helicon," but "an inundation *à la mode du pays*." Upon the fat, copiously illustrated folio of his works, Mr. Dobson has written a remarkably felicitous paper. Many collectors will aspire to possess that stately volume, wherein are inserted such plates as that which depicts Jacob (the Scriptural Jacob) carving upon a tree trunk "La Belle Rachell," and "Vive l'Amour."

Mr. Dobson's verse is so well known that the occasional pieces here printed, or reprinted, need little comment. But we cannot forbear quoting his sound critical praise of Dr. Johnson:

> "Read him for style and dismiss from your thoughts
> The crowd of compilers who copied his faults.
> Say, where is there English so full and so clear,
> So weighty, so dignified, manly, sincere?
> So strong in expression, conviction, persuasion?
> So prompt to take color from place or occasion?
> So widely removed from the doubtful, the tentative;
> So truly—and in the best sense—argumentative?"

The only regret with which one concludes the reading of these 'Miscellanies' is that the "correctness" of Mr. Dobson's faultless pen should, in this edition, be sometimes obscured by the incontinent proof-reading.

Our National Parks. By John Muir. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Charles Dudley Warner once wrote that ignorance of America was one of the branches taught in English schools. In view of the proverbial ignorance of their own country displayed by most Americans who spend their summers abroad, the English attitude is perhaps not surprising. That great Alpine specialist, Mr. Whymper, declared in a recent lecture that there are fifty Switzerlands in British Columbia alone. This region, to be sure, is at present for the most part inaccessible to ordinary tourists; but how many of us know that there are now in the United States five great national parks and thirty-eight reservations, most of them easily accessible? These regions have scenic beauties and wonders that Europe cannot match, yet the visitors to most of them are few.

A book calling attention to the manifold charms of these parks was a real desideratum, and it is most fortunate that it was written by such a genuine lover of nature as John Muir, who knows more about the forests and streams, the mountains and glaciers, the flowers and animals, of the Pacific Slope than any other living person. He has spent his life tracing rivers to their sources, climbing peaks, botanizing, studying the habits of animals, and camping wherever night happened to overtake him, often next door to mountain sheep or deer. The food question seems to have been his chief source of trouble. He envies the hardy grouse which are able to spend even the winter in the forests of the California mountains:

> "Able to live on the buds of pines, spruce, and fir, they are for ever independent in the matter of food supply, which gives so many of us trouble, dragging us here and there away from our best work. How gladly I would live on pine buds, however pitchy, for the sake of this grand independence!"

Usually this indefatigable naturalist has wandered alone, and so well are his habits known all over the Pacific Slope that it has repeatedly happened to him, on coming across some logger or hermit in the densest forests, to be accosted with the words, "You must be John Muir." Once he allowed himself to be persuaded to take along a beast of burden to carry his food and a pair of blankets; and the account of his Travels with a Donkey is as interesting as Stevenson's, though much shorter. He never repeated the experiment, as he found the poor beast in the long run more of a burden than a help:

> "Tough as he was, and accomplished as a climber, many a time in the course of our journey when he was jaded and hungry, wedged fast in rocks or struggling in cha-

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parral like a fly in a spiderweb, his troubles were sad to see, and I wished he would leave me and find his way home alone."

Of the ten chapters in Mr. Muir's book, two are devoted to the American parks and forest reservations in general, one to the Yellowstone, the others to the fountains and streams, the forests and big trees, the wild gardens and animals of the Yosemite. He grows enthusiastic over the vast tundras of Alaska as being "the most extensive, least spoiled, and most unspoilable of the gardens of the continent." Nowhere else on his travels has he seen "so much warm-blooded rejoicing life as in this grand Arctic reservation, by so many regarded as desolate." He urges tourists to give a month at least to the Flathead Reserve in Montana, with Lake McDonald and "the best care-killing scenery on the continent." Most inviting, too, are his remarks on the Mount Ranier forest reserve in Washington, which includes not only a sublime snow mountain over 14,000 feet in height, with glaciers radiating in every direction, but forests reaching to a height of over 6,000 feet, and above them a zone of the loveliest flowers, fifty miles in circuit and two miles wide, of which Mr. Muir says: "Altogether this is the richest subalpine garden I ever found, a perfect floral elysium." The wonders of the Yellowstone also have never had a more eloquent and graphic portrayer, and altogether the author has succeeded admirably in his object of showing forth "the beauty, grandeur, and all-embracing usefulness of our wild mountain forest reservations and parks, with a view to inciting the people to come and enjoy, and get them into their hearts, that so at length their preservation and right use might be made sure."

That the Yosemite should be specially favored in a book by John Muir was to have been expected, for the Sierra Nevada has been his headquarters, to which he always returned after excursions elsewhere; and he admits that of all the mountain ranges he has climbed, he likes this the best. Here there are no wild beasts and fevers trying to kill the adventurous traveller, as in many other parts of the world. Here everything is hospitable and kind; even the storms are friendly; the weather is mostly sunshine, both winter and summer, and

"Even the heaviest portions of the main forest belt, where the trees are tallest and stand closest, are not in the least gloomy. . . . The gardens and beds of underbrush, once devastated by sheep, are blooming again in all their wild glory, and the park is a paradise that makes even the loss of Eden seem insignificant. . . . Even the blind must enjoy these woods, drinking their fragrance, listening to the music of the winds in their groves, and fingering their flowers and plumes and cones and richly furrowed boles."

Mr. Muir scouts the charge, so often made, that there are no animals in these Sierra forests. They simply shun the noisy tourists. He has never had any trouble in finding them, and gives many charming descriptions of their habits as observed at close range. A page (173) is devoted to an amusing catalogue of the diverse things a bear will eat, from ants and snakes to strawberries and acorns, besides sugar, bacon, the mountaineer's bed, and a hundred other things. Bears never troubled the author during all his solitary wanderings; nor has any Yosemite tourist ever been bitten by snakes, though among these there are rattlers, with which Mr. Muir had some interesting adventures. "No American wilderness that I know of is," he says, "so dangerous as a city home, 'with all the modern improvements.'" It will surprise many to read that, while settlers are usually destructive of animal life, one of the loveliest species of California birds, the quail, has vastly increased in numbers, because the ravages of the pot-hunters are more than offset by the killing off of the quail's natural enemies—coyotes, skunks, foxes, hawks, owls, etc.—which not only kill the birds, but plunder their nests.

How do birds know that winter is coming? We usually say an instinct tells them, but perhaps the secret is simply this, that, like John Muir, they have keener senses than most of us, and are guided by the silky streamers on the peaks, the warning tones of the wind, and the strange whisperings among the tree-tops he speaks of (p. 283) in one of the many poetic passages in this book, which affect one like the surging waves of sound in a Wagner opera. His descriptions of forest fires, of Yellowstone geysers, of the outbursts of tree-bloom covering a thousand mountains, of earthquakes and avalanches, of the grinding, sculpturing, scenery-making glaciers, of the giant sequoias, "the auld lang syne of trees," looking as strange in aspect among other trees as would the mastodon among the homely bears and deer—are admirable specimens of prose poetry.

Throughout this volume there is a mixture of æsthetic appreciation, scientific knowledge, and personal adventure that gives it a unique charm. There are also amusing pages, among them an account of the author's vain endeavor to cure Emerson of the house habit and the strange dread of pure night air. The philosopher would have none of it, though his guide praised the beauty and fragrance of the sequoia camp-fire, and told how the great trees would stand about them transfigured in the purple light, while the stars looked down between the great domes. So Muir, after his visitor had left, sauntered back into the heart of the grove, made a bed of sequoia plumes and ferns by the side of a stream, built a great fire after sundown, and, as usual, had it all to himself.

The Scotch-Irish; or, The Scot in North Britain, North Ireland, and North America. By Charles A. Hanna. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1902.

In these large octavos there are twelve hundred pages of miscellaneous information, much of which is of a character to make the reader suspect that Mr. Hanna would have printed the names of all the Scots that ever lived could he have ascertained them. We have not only long lists of the settlers in Ulster, and of those who emigrated to this country, but also the "Ragman Roll," the names of most of the families of Scotland, of the peers and members of Parliament, the baronets, the bishops, the judges, and apparently of all other functionaries whose names are of record. Mingled among these catalogues are long extracts from the Norse Sagas, the Irish annalists, the 'Cloud of Witnesses,' the Montgomery, Hamilton, and Adair manuscripts, and numberless other chronicles and histories. All this, we are told, is not intended as a history of the Scotch-Irish people, but as an introduction to a series of historical collections which Mr. Hanna expects to publish hereafter. The prospective magnitude of this work would certainly daunt any one not of the indomitable race that it celebrates; but, knowing what Scotsmen have done and endured in the way of sermons, we may infer that they are "capables de tout."

While we think that Mr. Hanna has not made the best use of his materials, it would be ungracious not to recognize the value of his work. He is no doubt correct in supposing that many "native-born Americans" are ignorant of the details of Scottish history; and the epitome which he presents contains full citations from records not accessible here. The religious history of Scotland has a very direct connection with the remarkable extension of the Presbyterian system of church government in this country—a connection which has not been sufficiently noticed by our historians, and which Mr. Hanna illustrates with many striking facts. He suggests that the Revolution was due in no small degree to the hatred of England inherited from their persecuted forefathers by the Scottish immigrants, and he shows that this stock was prominent in both military and civil affairs. At the time of the Revolution there were more than 500 of their communities scattered from Maine to Georgia, but bound together by their representative system of church government. Long before the Revolution, there was a general synod holding annual meetings, attended by representatives of presbyteries in all parts of the land, an organization which might well contain the germ of a national union. Mr. Hanna brings out many facts supporting his general claim that the part played by this race in developing our country has not been duly appreciated, and complains that the achievements of the New England Puritans have been made too prominent. There is a chance for controversy here, but we shall not stir up strife.

We must observe, however, that Mr. Hanna's sweeping charges against the "Quaker Oligarchy" of Pennsylvania cannot bear the light turned on the subject by the recent books of Mr. Isaac Sharpless. Whatever else Mr. Hanna does, he proves that, from the earliest times, the Scots have been distinguished for their ferocity, and that slaughtering and being slaughtered by Indians in this country was nothing more than what they had been used to in the feuds and forays of Scotland. Such a people could no more adopt Quaker methods of dealing with the Indians than the Hebrew priests could extend mercy to the Canaanites. Mr. Hanna gives an account of the massacre of the Conestoga Indians who had taken refuge in the jail at Lancaster, and of the still more atrocious slaughter of the Moravian Indians at Gnadenhütten. He remarks that the Scotch-Irish may be blamed for thus introducing lynch law in America, and comments as follows:

"This atavistic tendency is further illustrated in our own day by the lynching of negroes in the South, the frequency of which is probably due to the fact that the Southern white population is chiefly of Scotch-Irish descent; these examples of perverted administration of justice finding many parallels in the annals of mediæval Scotland. The family feuds of Kentucky, which, for the most part, seem peculiar to families bearing Scottish names, may also be cited as examples

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and counterparts in America of the clan and family feuds formerly so common in Scotland."

The "perverted administration of justice" displayed in the murder of Indians guilty of no crime is further explained by Mr. Hanna as really a vicarious sacrifice. The Indians were befriended by the Quakers, whom the Scots hated; and as they could not directly attack the Quakers, they killed their defenceless wards. It is worth notice that a minister who had tried to restrain the Paxtang Rangers—the band which broke open the Conestoga jail and killed the Indians who had taken refuge there, men, women, and children—spoke of the affair precisely as the lynchings of negroes are now spoken of. The men, he says, "were in private life virtuous and respectable—not cruel, but mild and merciful. . . . This deed, magnified into the blackest of crimes, shall be considered one of those youthful ebullitions of wrath caused by momentary excitement, to which human infirmity is subjected." But the perpetrators of the deed scorned to apologize for it, and the statement made by their leader of the attitude of his people towards the Indians well deserves to be preserved as defining the general policy of "civilized" governments in dealing with inferior races even to this day. But we can hardly believe this worthy when he complains that the failure of the Quaker Government to offer rewards for Indian scalps had "damped the spirits of many brave men." It is a clever touch, and no doubt a canny Scot would be glad to turn an honest penny by killing an enemy; but the pleasure of killing would be a sufficient inducement.

It should be said that these Scots were forced to the frontiers in all the colonies, and thus had to bear the brunt of the collision with the natives. They immigrated when the lands near the coast had been taken up by earlier settlers, and were thus obliged to become pioneers. Their onward march has many features of sublimity, and no one will deny their courage and vigor. But they were a stern, almost a savage race, and their religion was that of a "peculiar people." Apart from racial considerations, Mr. Hanna's compilation has much genealogical value, and it is in this direction that his researches may be most advantageously prosecuted. These volumes cannot be said to be readable, although they contain much readable matter; but they will be found very serviceable for reference, and should find a place in our public libraries.

The Land of Nome. By Lanier McKee. New York: The Grafton Press. 1902. Pp. xii, 260.

Mr. McKee and a companion went to seek their fortunes in the Nome region of Alaska after the discovery of gold. They reached the town on June 20, 1900, and, after looking about, proceeded to Council City, a mining camp in the interior reached by ascending a shallow stream which falls into Golovin Sound, on the south shore of the peninsula. Here Mr. McKee undertook to practise law while his associate took to surveying mining claims. The former returned to San Francisco for the winter, and reached Council City again the following spring. Mr. McKee is a resident of Washington, D. C., and a graduate of the Harvard Law School; also, it would appear from his narrative, a level-headed and businesslike person, who, with his partner, scored a fair measure of success.

The account of the journey to their destination is a very straightforward, unsensational narrative of experiences such as have been the lot of thousands since the gold excitement began. It is true to life, and all the more welcome since the average returned Alaskan gold-seeker is prone to exercise a traveller's privilege of picturesque embroidery in his tales of adventure. The real interest of the book, however, lies in its first-hand details of the most remarkable and shameful conspiracy to defraud by wholesale the members of a mining community by process of law which has ever been exposed. The discovery of the gold near Nome was made by some of the Lapps engaged by the Government in the attempt to train the resident natives of Port Clarence and vicinity in the handling and use of domesticated reindeer. These Lapps were not citizens of the United States, and it was questioned by some whether they had a right to take up mining claims in United States territory. When the first news of the strike reached St. Michael, a number of traders and others hurried to the ground, and staked out a multitude of claims for themselves, and also, by power of attorney, for an enormous number of persons who had never been in the new gold-field. There was some doubt as to the legality of the title to claims based on these powers of attorney, and of the titles gained by corporations who had purchased and were working claims derived from the Lapps and the "attorneys." The inception of the conspiracy is wrapped in mystery, and has not been investigated by any court. A version which we are informed is current in Alaska, but of the truth of which it is impossible to be certain, is to the effect that a "member of the Board of Aldermen of the District of Columbia," and a political "striker" to whom he was indebted, arranged that the former should obtain the appointment of a judge for the Third District of Alaska (which included the Nome region) who would enter into the plan of recognizing "jumpers" of the claims aforesaid, making the "striker" a receiver for the properties in dispute under nominal bonds, and working the claims, so sequestered, to the incidental profit of the conspirators, the ruin of the original claim-holders, and, should the legal questions be finally decided against the latter, to the fabulous enrichment of the "gang." Thus robbery was to be brazenly perpetrated under the forms of law, and the fountain of justice poisoned at its source.

The injunction issued by the Circuit Court of Appeals in San Francisco, its defiance by the judge and his associates in Alaska, the final arrest, conviction, and imprisonment of the Alaskan members of the "gang" for contempt of court, and their dismissal from office in disgrace, are matters of legal record and beyond dispute. Senator Stewart has placed the complete history of the receivership proceedings, together with the opinion and judgment of the Circuit Court of Appeals, in the *Congressional Record*, where it may be consulted by any one, and the more essential facts are recapitulated in the volume before us. It is much to be desired that the public should inform themselves of this culminating outrage on the rights of Alaskan settlers and miners, and that a little of the indignation, fruitlessly if righteously expended on affairs in the Philippines, should be brought to bear on matters nearer home, in the interest of a community which has suffered from neglect and ill-treatment incredible in a civilized country, for more than thirty years.

The Pavement Masters of Siena (1369-1562). By Robert H. Hobart Cust, M.A., Oxford. Being the first volume of Handbooks of the Great Craftsmen, edited by G. C. Williamson, Litt.D. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1901. pp. xxiii, 159.

The Ivory-Workers of the Middle Ages. By A. M. Cust. Same publishers. 1902. Pp. xix, 170.

The famous Cathedral of Siena is distinguished from all other churches in having an inlaid and encrusted pavement. This prodigious achievement is not a mere pattern of triangles and lozenges arranged in circles or otherwise — it is not mere *opus musivum*, or *opus Alexandrinum;* it is an elaborate series of pictures, in monochrome or nearly so, but still pictorial in the extreme, framed in and set off by borders of checker and zigzag. With this elaborate pictorial surface adornment the whole flooring of the church is composed. Unfortunately, it has to be covered again by a flooring of planks, and these, though made so as to be removable in large square divisions, are taken up by the servants of the church only piece by piece, and in return for fees, nor is it possible to have any idea of the general effect of the whole church, with its pavement affecting the general design. This, which is, of course, the only very important point of view—the only way in which the pavement is really worth considering—is rendered unobtainable, except on certain days of the year, when, and for an occasion, the plank coverings are stowed away; but then the crowd fills the church, and few are they who in modern times have seen this great work in its entirety. Obviously the great artistic undertaking has proved a mistake, and the pavement is a thing not to be imitated or followed by future cathedral builders.

For the student of ancient art there is, however, no choice. He must become as familiar with the significance of these separate designs and with the general conception which holds them together in one composition as if they were in evidence daily, displayed upon the walls as one wishes that they had been displayed; and Mr. Hobart Cust's book is the only attempt made with any persistence and on any intelligible system to explain it—in short, to serve as a guide to the pavement, which much needs a guide. The work is divided into five chapters. The first gives the history of the pavement; chapter ii. describes it; chapter iii. deals with the artists who have worked upon it (these two chapters are much the longest, and include in themselves three-fourths of the book); chapter iv. refers to other important pavements in Italy; chapter v. comes back to the Siena floor, and describes, though too briefly, the materials and the workmanship with special attention to the gradually increasing introduction, during the many years spent upon the pavement, of colored marbles into the designs. There are tables of the pave-

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ment and its designers, with reference to a skeleton plan; there is a list of authorities consulted, and there are many half-tone prints, one of which is from a drawing in black and white of the whole pavement; unless, indeed, it is made from a series of separate photographs taken vertically from above. We should not dare make this guess were it not that a precisely similar case is before us, in which a most elaborate architectural composition was reproduced in 140-odd photographs, which were then brought together edge to edge, and held on an enormous stretcher, that single photographs of the whole might be taken, with a very useful result. Another picture should be named, however, the most important single thing in the book—a plate showing the whole interior of the church from near the entrance door, with the plank floor removed, and the pavement showing in perspective, as it was intended to be seen—as it cannot be seen in modern times.

Another volume of this series is that on Ivory Workers of the Middle Ages, by A. M. Cust. It contains a number of successful half-tone illustrations, from well-chosen subjects, sufficiently varied, and expressive of the styles which they represent, if not very novel to the student of such matters. Such a student will miss certain important pieces, but that is not a thing to visit with much reprobation. The Paris Exposition of 1900 is mentioned, and two pieces that were there are named, while a third, the wonderful Virgin of Villeneuve, passes without being named; but it is easy to understand that reproduction of objects in that retrospective exhibition was forbidden except to those who had the contract, or the privilege, of producing one of the great books already published or in hand concerning that remarkable collection of works of ancient art.

There is really no fault to be found with the illustrations. As for the text, it is unfortunately slight, disfigured by a disagreeably jocose tone, as if really the matter were too trivial to be considered gravely; it is also quite devoid of systematic treatment. A little stream of historical narrative runs through it, with comments on each ivory, which serve as an explanation of why this and that bit of history is introduced; but evidently the attempt to treat the subject in a popular way has been too much for the author. There are better books on the same subject already, and when it was determined to make an inexpensive manual, it was much to be desired that this should be done in the most thorough manner possible. It is not easy to write a small book on a great subject.

Dutch Life in Town and Country. By P. M. Hough. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Usually "it is dark at the base of the lantern," so far as Holland is concerned, with the Britisher, whether he be historian, statesman, or the man on the street. He is apt to mix up the Dutch and the German, as if they were one people dwelling in one country. Nor does the Englishman go to Holland for ideas, for he is thoroughly persuaded that the Dutch are "slow." Hence, as a matter of course, we expect English books to be full of glaring inaccuracies when Holland is the theme. In the one before us we have a happy exception.

Mr. Hough has evidently lived long in the land and is familiar with the intellectual and social atmosphere. From cover to cover he is thoroughly accurate in word and idea. There is no other book which gives one so clear a picture of actual life in the Netherlands of 1901. He is so far up to date that he explains the recent phases of political parties and fusions, and the resulting election of Dr. Abraham Kuyper, the stalwart Calvinist, as premier of the kingdom. Again, he shows grasp and insight touching Dutch colonial problems in his chapter on "Holland over Sea." He believes that the Atchin war is practically over, and that the next few years are likely to see greater advances in the commerce and industries of Netherlands India, and a rush of emigrants to the colonies. In just opposition to some of our inaccurate dictionaries that profess to be standards, he does not spell the name of a Reformed Dutch clergyman in Scotch style, "dominie," which is the word for a "stickit minister," but uses the correct Dutch form in unaltered Latin, "domine." The same accuracy in details marks the author's presentation of his thoroughly comprehensive surveys of court and society, the professional classes, art and letters, school and school life, the army and navy, rural customs, and the other topics pictured in his twenty-one chapters. His general view, as especially noticeable in treating matters ecclesiastic and scholastic, is that of the orthodox Englishman, so that from some of his verdicts the American would make considerable deduction for personal equation. From what we know of the Dutch universities, one could hardly accept his chapter on these as fully satisfactory. He is remarkably fair and judicial-minded concerning religious life and thought, though in regard to the "Frye Gemeenten" or Free Congregations (rather than "Communities") the author is hardly correct, for of the fifty or more of these in the Netherlands, about fifteen are genuine Congregational churches, in which, with independence and the greatest freedom of organization, there is a tenacious holding to strictly evangelical doctrine and forms of church life. To read the chapter on "The Peasant at Home" will give to any one familiar with the indoor architecture and habits of the people who settled the Hudson, Raritan, and Mohawk valleys, a revelation of ancestral traits still persistently maintained in America.

Among the illustrations, most of them commonplace though well reproduced, is one giving "the interior of the church at Delftshaven where the Pilgrim fathers worshipped before leaving for New England." For this pleasing supposition there is no written proof, and our own researches on the ground show not only an absence of all record—the church book covering the history of the time having been lost in a "twist," or quarrel, between the domine and the town authorities—but the assertion is intrinsically improbable, for the State Church of Holland in 1620 looked upon Congregationalists as little better than Anabaptists, by which name, indeed, the Puritans of Salem usually spoke of the Plymouth colonists. However, the author does not make in his text assertion of the legend attached to the picture. For its accurate presentation of the Dutch situation in art, letters, learning, and politics, as well as in the round of common life in town and city, this book deserves the heartiest praise.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

"A. M. F." Tales of My Father. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Addams, Jane. Democracy and Social Ethics. (The Citizens' Library.) Macmillan. $1.25.
Alden, W. L. Drewitt's Dream. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
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